The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 1, 1909.

The Week.

President Taft, according to the reports from Washington, is opposed to tariff duties on the "necessaries of life"; and with good reason for the taxes on necessaries are what make tariff bills odious. But the question as to what are the necessaries is not easy to determine. Tea and coffee may fairly be classed under that head. The case for stockings and gloves is not quite so clear; indeed, the argument that high-priced stockings and gloves are luxuries is not without force. The members from the rural districts can dwell with much unction on the virtues of the simple, strong, and perhaps homely materials worn by the hard-working wife of the hard-working farmer. Why should the daughter of a Wall Street millionaire not pay a heavy tax if she insists on the finest glove instead of the far warmer and more substantial buckskin mitten? A number of members are urging that the internal revenue tax on beer shall be doubled. Within a year both England and Germany have undertaken to derive more revenue from this source, but have discovered a general feeling that beer is a necessary. In this country, we are confident, the tax on alcoholic drinks would meet with less opposition. Probably the people as a whole would not object to seeing the tax as heavy as the traffic will bear.

For a party so seemingly habituated to anarchy and dissension, the Democrats at Washington are taking their latest split rather bitterly. Regulars and insurgents, when they meet, snarl at each other. Several fist-fights have been narrowly averted. Old friendships have been broken. Irate Congressmen bid one another go to places where the tariff on wool is not an issue of primary interest. The gods that hate traitors, quitters, and mugwumps are being assiduously invoked. The question is, how much of this righteous indignation is sincere, how much is put on for the purpose of giving the people at home shattering proof of the indignant member's own regularity? There are diplomatic enmities, just as there are diplomatic friendships. Have there not been statesmen who have hewn and stabbed lustily and then written letters saying, "My dear Jones, when can you come up here to lunch with me?"

In Gov. Hughes's speech at Buffalo, explaining and urging his primary bill, the arguments are admirably marshalled and the presentation of details is lucid and cogent. The proposed law, like all such measures, is so long and complex that few voters will read through the draft of the act itself; but the Governor's six reasons for believing in direct nominations are statements of principles which every one may grasp:

First—Because the party voters constitute the party and are entitled to select its candidates.

Second—Because it makes much more difficult the selfish control of party machinery.

Third—Because in this way, the sentiment of the party is directly expressed and is not left to be interpreted by those who will ignore it, so far as they dare, in order to achieve their own personal ends.

Fourth—Because the candidate will owe his nomination directly to the party voters and will feel a corresponding responsibility and enjoy a corresponding independence.

Fifth—Because elected officers will have an opportunity to appeal directly to their constituents and will not be forced, as is too frequently the case, to go contrary to their conscience in order to save their political future.

Sixth—Because it will block up some of the avenues by which special interests find their way to administrative favor and governmental control.

Learning from the experience of other States, Gov. Hughes would have the regulations for registration so safeguarded that it will be impossible for the voters of one party to raid the primaries of another. The sections regarding the use of money and the filing of reports of expenditure are also stringent. The placing of the nominee of the party committee at the head of the ballot has provoked criticism. For ourselves, we should prefer an alphabetical arrangement of names. But that is a small matter. It is obviously desirable to make the party leaders more responsive to the wishes of their constituents, and we are willing to try any reasonable experiment that may bring about such an important result.

The bill establishing a State farm colony has been favorably reported to the Assembly, and is now under consideration by the Senate Committee on Codes. In its amended form, it is a measure of modest beginnings, but of considerable promise. It would attack the problem of dealing with vagrancy in a new way. Under the operation of such a law, tramps would not only be taken off the streets and roads, but set to work usefully, and in a fashion which might teach them an occupation. The sponsors of the bill have met various honest objections by freeing their plan of certain features which were too ambitious, for the present, or which seemed to come into collision with some other reformatory institutions. As now urged, it provides for the establishment of but a single labor farm for vagrants. We hope for speedy and favorable action by the Legislature.

The action by the United Mine Workers makes a strike in the anthracite region very improbable. The men are to keep at work after April 1, and whatever differences they have with the mine owners will be taken up locally by district boards. This is a practical retreat by the miners, but it was inevitable in the present state of business. If the men do not have to face a period of idleness made necessary by the slack demand for coal, and the large supplies on hand, they will be lucky. It is probable, in any case, that the usual shutdown of the mines will be longer this year than usual. These facts are so well known that it was impossible in the miners' convention at Scranton to work up any real sentiment in favor of a strike. The old leaven of politics showed itself in the resolution calling upon President Taft to appoint a commission to arbitrate the differences between the men and their employers. It is not to be supposed that the President will do anything of the kind. Conditions are radically different from those of 1902—and there is a different President.

The hysterical pursuit by a California mob of the young woman who desired to marry a Japanese is but another example of the extraordinary misapprehension on the Pacific Coast in regard to the subjects of the Mikado, and of our general intolerance in matters of

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race. Californians of the baser sort naturally cannot get it into their heads that Japan, as Senator Root expressed it at the banquet in his honor on February 26, is a "great nation of gentlemen, of soldiers, of scholars and scientists, of statesmen, a nation worthy of challenging and receiving the respect, the honor, and the homage of mankind." This latest California outcry is but another illustration of the "bad manners, arrogant and provincial assertion of superiority," of which, as Mr. Root said, we have been far from guiltless. But assuming for the sake of argument that the Japanese in question is not a man of such high social standing as to meet the fastidious taste of the California mob, and that in any event the young woman might have done better by choosing a person of European descent, every American, man or woman, is entitled to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. There is nothing immoral in the marriage of Japanese and other races. Many Japanese men have German and French wives, and Americans have Japanese wives. One of the leading Japanese statesmen has as his wife a member of the highest German aristocracy. The marriage of Chinese officers and scholars to European women excites no comment.

The news that in the German Reichstag the "bloc," comprising the Liberals, Conservatives, and Radicals, has apparently dissolved, cannot be said to come as a surprise. When the Reichstag was elected, after the government broke with the Clericals, it did not seem possible that the coalition formed by the Chancellor to give the government a majority could last as long as it has. The bait held out to the Liberals was some minor reforms; for this mess of pottage they were to become political bedfellows of their life-long enemies, the Agrarians, the Protectionists, and the most ardent defenders of the special privileges of the wealthy. This mistaken policy has cost the Radicals and Liberals dear, not only because they have been drawn into support of the obnoxious anti-Polish legislation, but because their following has rapidly split up. Had the Chancellor been a man of vigorous initiative and leadership, able to draw up a comprehensive programme of reform, and push it in a masterful manner, his coalition might have continued indefinitely. But his one idea has been to keep his "bloc" in hand by concessions and compromises. He had managed to steer safely even through the troubles created by the Kaiser's indiscreet utterances last autumn. But now the difficulty is irreconcilable differences of opinion regarding the reorganization of Germany's finances. The Conservatives have not been willing to place new burdens upon the rich by means of inheritance and property taxes, while the Liberals are determined that no further favors shall be shown to those classes which are already specially favored. As a result, one scheme after another has been proposed, only to fall flat; with the result that anything like a clear-cut, far-reaching scheme seems out of the question.

The Berlin *Tageblatt* bewails, too, the want of able leadership in the individual parties and the prominence of what it terms "district-club politicians" in the debates of a subject the importance of which to the nation Von Bülow has by no means exaggerated. There is, for instance, the Reichstag Committee on Rules. To it was entrusted the patriotic duty of advising the Reichstag how best to profit by the affair with the Kaiser, how to strengthen the constitutional guarantees of the independence of Ministry and Reichstag from the interference of the Crown in foreign affairs. The committee had a magnificent opportunity to increase the prestige of the Reichstag and to win for it the right to be consulted in the appointment of the leading Federal officials. The committee might even have begun the fight for a responsible Ministry. But after four months of discussion, the committee has brought forward not a single recommendation worthy of notice.

Writing in the *Deutsche Wirtschafts-Zeitung*, Dr. Theodor Barth urges an international alliance of free-traders to give aid and strength to all fighting for the cause. To help free the markets of all the world is the best way, he contends, of furthering free trade in one's own land. The free-trade movement, he rightly regards as one of the best means of promoting international peace. He also points out that the free trade arguments from one country's experiments ought to be readily available and better understood abroad. With all his suggestions we heartily concur. It has always been a puzzle why the defenders of free trade in Great Britain who now find themselves in so dangerous a position, have not drawn more upon the experience of the United States as a horrible example. The corruption of our political life, the dictation of our tariffs by selfish interests, the growth of the trusts, the offspring of protection—all these things afford a very arsenal of arguments for free-traders elsewhere. This Dr. Barth perceives, for he makes clever use of Andrew Carnegie's testimony before the Ways and Means Committee. He knows well how insatiable is the appetite of protectionists. In 1879, he fought, as a member of the Bundesrath, the proposal to put a tariff of 50 pfennigs (12½ cents) on rye, because it was a precedent. Bismarck sent word to him that he did not dream of increasing this tax; but it is now, thirty years later, 50 marks, or $12.50 a ton.

The final results of the Italian Parliamentary elections have been taken as heralding the approach of a Ministry composed of Radicals and Socialists. This view is exaggerated. The second ballotings, it is true, reduced the Government's apparent majority. From 350 Deputies in the last Parliament, the Giolitti "bloc" has declined to a little over 300; but that would still give the Government a clear majority of 100 in a Chamber of 508 members. All the small parties did well at the polls, including the Catholics, whose first showing was not at all indicative of their real strength. From seven Deputies, the Catholics have risen to 24. The Socialists have gone up from 26 to 42, the extreme Radicals from 32 to 42, and the Republicans from 19 to 24. The parties of the Extreme Left have thus risen from 77 to 108. The Moderate Liberals, or Constitutional Opposition, as they call themselves, have declined most. They now number between 60 and 70. Now, appreciable as the increase may be from 77 votes to 108 for the Extreme Left, that gain does not mean a sudden growth of Socialism, Republicanism, and Radicalism. In the Parliament that was dissolved in 1904 these three parties had 106 seats. In that year's

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elections, they sank to 91, and gradual attrition during five years further reduced them to 77. Thus their 108 votes in the present Parliament places them just about where they were five years ago.

The resignation of William O'Brien, who has been one of the most prominent Irish members of Parliament during the last twenty-five years, is indicative of the firm hold which the Nationalist party under John Redmond continues to maintain on Irish affairs. As editor of *United Ireland* and as a founder of the United Irish League, O'Brien has a notably radical history to look back to. About 1903, however, he broke with Redmond and the militant Nationalists and put forward a policy of "conciliation" which, owing to his personal popularity in the southeastern part of the island, and especially in Cork, succeeded in winning over a handful of supporters in Parliament. The *Irish People*, which he founded in 1898, and stopped publishing in 1903, was re-established in 1905, now to be once more, and permanently, suspended. For some time conservative opinion in England was inclined to look upon O'Brien's policy of moderation as showing the way to a solution of the Irish question. Possibly, however, this was simply a way of playing off O'Brien's faction against the Nationalists.

MR. TAFT'S MOVE FOR ECONOMY.

Mr. Taft's establishment of a "budget committee" to supervise all department estimates before they are submitted to Congress may prove to be the beginning of a great reform. True, the new committee, of which the Secretary of the Treasury is to be the chairman, lacks the sanction of law, and, unless established by Congress, may be disbanded by any future President. But no President could, we think, object to so rational a plan of systematizing the crude methods by which our national funds are appropriated and expended. Moreover, in this country, as in England, some of the most important customs of government owe their origin to just such executive action; and by the lapse of years have become as fixed and unchangeable as though embodied in our fundamental law.

Whether this will be the case with the new budget committee, or not, there could be no better illustration of the quiet efficiency to be expected from Mr. Taft's administration. There has been no ringing of bells, no blowing of trumpets, no heralding of an important change. Mr. Taft's unusual experience as the head of the Philippine government and the War Department now stands him in good stead. In the Philippines he was compelled to cut his coat according to his cloth; there was no great surplus to fall back upon should expenditures exceed the estimates. Mr. Taft, too, is not impatient of detail; and he is aware that the financial problem is fundamental and underlies all the rest. To ignore it and devote one's energies to something more spectacular than studying the budget, is more exciting and often more profitable politically, but sooner or later somebody has to sit down to the reckoning and endeavor to make both ends meet.

This is precisely the hour for such an undertaking. The revision of the tariff, Mr. Taft's conception of it as a revenue measure, and the alarming deficit all suggest an attempt to bring appropriations and disbursements into some sort of coördination. Our folly of legislating without regard to probable income, has been the wonder of foreign ministers of finance, whose carefully worked out budgets, showing the sources from which the necessary funds may be drawn, must first run the gantlet of Parliamentary criticism. With us, a Cabinet head sends in his estimates without the slightest reference to what his brother Cabinet officer across the hall may be doing. The only unvarying principle is to ask for as much as you dare, on the theory that Congress is certain to cut the loaf down. Perhaps three-quarters of what is requested will be granted, perhaps even more than is requested. For, after the head of a department has made his plea, a member of a committee may suddenly insist, from purely personal reasons, that an appropriation be inserted or another increased.

No less an authority than Speaker Cannon has solemnly protested against this whole procedure. In a speech on March 4, 1897, he declared that the appropriations just made were in excess of all legitimate demands, not because of any party action, but because of "conditions accruing out of the rules of the House and out of the rules, practice, and so-called courtesies of the Senate, together with the irresponsible manner in which the Executive submits to Congress estimates to meet expenditures for the conduct of government." If, he asked, the appropriations were extravagant, how much more so must be the estimates, for in not a single instance in many years had Congress granted the amounts desired by the Executive. He continued:

> It is said . . . that ours is the only government in the civilized world, wherein the administrative branch apparently assumes no degree of responsibility to the taxpayers for its demands for the expenditure of public money, and that ours is the only government wherein the legislative branch alone exercises the function or duty of check upon public expenditures without any considerable degree of coöperation on the part of the executive.

But Mr. Cannon made no practical suggestions, save to recommend a reduction from fourteen to ten in the number of appropriation bills and to express the hope that "the incoming President, with his long experience as a distinguished member of the legislative branch of this government, will exact of his Cabinet councillors some degree of wholesome effort in the direction of intelligent recommendation of public expenditures, to the end that Congress may not have to strive unaided and alone toward bringing our public expenditures within the sum of our public revenue." But Mr. McKinley's plunge into war afforded no opportunity for any such undertaking, even had he been interested in it. It has remained for Mr. Taft, after twelve years, to point the way to reform.

Congress has shown that it is willing to coöperate by providing in the last sundry civil appropriation bill that if the estimates are in excess of the probable income, the Secretary of the Treasury shall report the results of his addition and subtraction to the President, who may advise Congress what appropriations to cut and what new taxes to levy or loans to make. The Senate, too, has created a standing committee on expenditures of executive departments. Since Mr. Taft is reported to be bent on economical administration, there is hope that his term will be rendered notable by the establishment of the principle that every dollar of government money shall bring its full return to the taxpayer. The new "budget committee" alone cannot, of course, accomplish this,

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nor can the wasteful methods of a century be ended in four years. More radical changes will be needed to accomplish the result. But Mr. Taft will render great and lasting service to his country if he devotes himself to this task.

CANADA AND THE PAYNE BILL.

Two conditional offers to Canada in the Payne bill will cause the Laurier government much embarrassment. There was a time when Sir Wilfrid Laurier and Sir Richard Cartwright would eagerly have welcomed both the minimum schedules of the Payne bill and the offer of reciprocity in coal. It was such trade openings as these that Sir Richard Cartwright, the present Minister of Trade and Commerce, had in mind when he made his famous speech at the National Liberal Convention, at Ottawa, in 1893:

> It would be well that the people of Canada should bear in mind that Canada is by necessity of its position an integral part of this continent of North America, and that we have to all intents and purposes no other neighbor than the United States.

From the early seventies until 1896 this was the spirit in which Canadian Liberals regarded the United States. They realized that the currents of trade ran north and south, and must cross and recross the international line to the mutual advantage of both countries; and in those years it was ostensibly the aim of Canadian Liberals of the school of Laurier and Cartwright to bring about trade relations with the United States similar to those which prevailed from 1854 to 1866, when the Elgin-Marcy treaty was in operation. But this neighborly attitude was abandoned after the Liberals had adopted the policy of Sir John Macdonald in 1897; for with their going over to protection came their affiliation with the Canadian Manufacturers' Association and with the coal and iron interests of Nova Scotia. These will cause Laurier and Fielding trouble, now that Washington proposes minimum schedules for Canada and reciprocity in coal.

For nearly two years Canada has been negotiating with France for trade concessions. The Dominion is also weary of the miserable tariff war with Germany, which has been persisted in since 1903. France can have the intermediate tariff as soon as the French Senate will accept the commercial treaty that is now pending; and consumers in Canada will welcome the day when the intermediate tariff is also applied to textiles, hardware, and chemicals from Germany. But then the worries of the government in regard to the Payne bill will begin, for since the intermediate tariff was enacted in November, 1906, the Canadian Manufacturers' Association has been in a continual state of apprehension lest the intermediate rates, which are about 10 per cent. below the general tariff, should be applied to imports from the United States. Under the Payne tariff, if the Canadian intermediate tariff is conceded to either France or Germany, the same concession must be made to the United States, or the maximum rates of the Payne bill will go into operation against imports from Canada.

Politicians at Ottawa had expected that if any concessions were made to Canada, or if Washington made offers of reciprocity, they would be conditioned on granting to the United States the same tariff concessions as Canada makes to England. They have depended upon a demand like this as a ground for refusing any proposals of the kind. This ground is now cut from under them by the provision in the Payne bill that no British colony shall be denied the minimum rates, because of any preference it may make in its tariff to England or to any of its sister colonies. Thus the offer of minimum rates and also the offer of reciprocity in coal come in a shape never contemplated by Sir Wilfrid Laurier and the Ottawa politicians. The Laurier government will have to decide between the Canadian Manufacturers' Association and the coal operators of Cape Breton, on the one hand, and, on the other, the general body of consumers in Canada. There has long been an understanding between the manufacturers of Ontario and Quebec and the coal interests of Cape Breton for mutual protection and support. Before the Canadian Tariff Commission of 1905-6, manufacturers were asked concerning the duty of fifty-three cents a ton on coal. Almost invariably their answer was that they had nothing to say on this aspect of the protective tariff. Canadians have paid the duty since 1879 solely for the advantage of three or four mining companies, operating in Cape Breton or on the mainland of Nova Scotia.

Originally, the purpose of the duty was to force Cape Breton coal into use in all the vast territory that lies between the Atlantic and Lake Superior; and with this object in view, from 1879 to 1887, the duty was imposed on anthracite, as well as on bituminous coal. Failure overtook this plan. Nova Scotia coal never came into use far beyond Montreal, although Nova Scotia coal companies do now control the coal trade of the Maritime Provinces and of Quebec. It costs Ontario and Manitoba about three and a half million dollars a year to give the Nova Scotia companies this measure of control of the coal trade of the Dominion; and because the coal operators are convinced they would lose the trade of Quebec, the Nova Scotia members of the House of Commons are already pressing the Laurier government for a declaration that it will not accept the offer of reciprocity in coal made in the Payne bill. Both political parties at Ottawa since 1897 have been out-and-out protectionists—the Conservatives as a matter of policy and tradition; the Liberals as a matter of political tactics.

Judging from past experience, the Laurier government will allow no interference with the coal or the iron and steel industry of Cape Breton. These industries, through the tariff and through bounties, cost the Dominion seven or eight million dollars a year; and interests which have been sufficiently powerful at Ottawa to secure such favors are likely to be strong enough to compel the government to ignore the offer from Washington. A few Ontario and Manitoba supporters of the government may be inclined to protest. But there is not a corporal's guard of independent Liberal members in the House of Commons.

DEFENCES THAT DESTROY.

At this moment four of the leading nations—France, England, Germany, and the United States—are moving heaven and earth to lay new taxes. Germany must find $100,000,000 a year more, or make herself again the servant of the lender. The English Chancellor of the Exchequer is preparing a budget in which the taxing power is stretched to the utmost in order to make income level with outgo. Our own straits are reflected in the re-

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ports from Washington of new schemes every day to raise the revenue. The protectionist tariff bill has to be converted, perforce, into one for revenue. In France, the new income tax, which has passed the Chamber and is now before the Senate, and which would levy a charge in some cases as high as 20 per cent. of the annual income, is striking evidence of the way in which mounting public expenditures have driven governments to their wits' end. It is a world-disease.

We are now so accustomed to the thought of burdensome taxes that we do not often stop to think what they really mean. They actually represent a sapping of the comfort and resources of every taxpayer. If we could visualize the government in its work of collecting taxes, we should be able better to understand the nature of the process. We should then see an official stepping into a middle-class home, and saying: "No, you shall not give your children the clothes or the schooling you intended, for I demand a part of the money which you had set apart for that purpose. Nor shall you be able to care for them in sickness as you would wish, for I cut down your surplus for emergencies. Your savings for old age must be transferred in part to me. I am the one who cripples you in your daily expenses and your yearly estimates." Indisputably, to exact a tax so comprehended is an act of the grossest tyranny and oppression unless the public necessity be imperative. Sums extracted under the *kurbash* or by torture could be no more cruelly wrung from the subject than are all taxes the justification for which is not as clear as noonday.

This, of course, is formally admitted by the tithing-men. They picture the crushing taxes which they are devising as a sacrifice which the individual citizen is called upon to make for the common weal. And as they are forced to confess that it is huge outlay for military purposes, in time of peace, that eats up most of the widow's portion, and cabins and confines the lives of workingmen, it is upon the supreme need of providing adequate national defence that they expend their main arguments. This is the story that is now being poured into the ears of agitated people in England. Their island empire is endangered, and they must take the last penny out of their purse, if necessary, in order to fill the seas with Dreadnoughts. It is a patriotic duty to lay oppressive taxes, and a patriotic duty also to pay them without a murmur. That is also the theme of Washington statesmen, with their appropriations for army and navy increasing two and three-fold, and no limit in sight. It is a fundamental question, they assert, of national defence.

In such extreme forms, however, that kind of defence destroys its professed object. It would deliver us from war, but lays upon us in peace burdens almost as great as those of war. Modern wars are soon over; but modern preparations to avert war impose their crushing demands upon the citizen continuously and increasingly through long years. Furthermore, the apprehension of war is only heightened by this kind of attempt to remove all fear of it. Consider the present plight of England. But a few years ago her navy lords were rejoicing in their latest triumph of construction—a battleship 50 per cent. bigger and more powerful than any before built. As England could launch Dreadnoughts faster than any other nation, her supremacy and safety were forever established, and war had been put out of the question by these terrible engines of war. Yet, in a short time, this jubilation was turned into panic. The very advance in English shipbuilding had made the rest of her great fleet antiquated. It was now a case of Dreadnoughts against Dreadnoughts, and Germany was able to put them into the water as fast as England. The result was that extraordinary debate in Parliament the other day, when Mr. Balfour vied with the Prime Minister in depicting the acutely critical situation which the country was facing. It appears now that both disputants were wrong about their facts. They had been misinformed about the German naval programme. That is now confessed, and the excitement is subsiding. But the incident shows how boasted national defences are all the while breaking down, our trust in the latest ships and guns shown to be misplaced, and the financial burdens bound upon the backs of the people made ever more and more grievous.

In these very excesses lies a practical hope. Armaments designed to overwhelm others are ruining ourselves. At the present rate, the money-pinch will soon make powerfully for international peace, and for some means of guaranteeing it less costly and less futile than armor plate and high explosives. The moral and Christian arguments for disarming are reinforced to-day as never before by economic reasons. Taxes may do what texts cannot. It will soon become impossible for a Finance Minister to propose new ways of taking the substance of the taxpayer, without having first sought earnestly to bring about an agreement among the nations to limit armaments. The German reply to Campbell-Bannerman's advances was that "no formula" for disarming could be found. Events are bringing a formula to view. Sir Edward Grey, speaking in Parliament for the Foreign Office on Monday, gave one phrasing of it:

> The vastness of the expenditure on armaments has become a satire and a reflection on the civilization of the world. If it goes on, it must sooner or later in Europe lead to national bankruptcy.

That is, whether expressed in pounds or marks or dollars, the limit to the power of the peoples to pay taxes compels the finding of a limit to great armaments.

PAUPERISM IN GREAT BRITAIN.

A Royal Commission, appointed in 1905 to study the working of the Poor Laws and other forms of public relief in Great Britain, has just presented its report. The commission finds that the system of poor-law administration is a failure. But more tragic than the bankruptcy of a system is the unchecked growth of the evil with which that system was intended to cope. Most of us know that poverty in England is chronic. Few of us know that poverty has steadily increased during a half-century that saw the total national wealth of England go up by leaps and bounds. There were 24,000 more paupers in the years 1896-1906 than in 1888-96, and 7,000 more than in 1880-88. If we compare the period 1896-1906 with 1871-80, we find a decrease of 3.9 per cent. in the total number of paupers. But that is because there has been a decrease of 18 per cent. in the number of dependent children, and 2 per cent. in the number of women. Adult male paupers have increased by no less than 18 per cent. In other words, the old charge that the almshouses were filled as a result of reckless breeding

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among the very poor, has lost most of its force. The ranks of English destitution are now recruited from among the adults. The increase in pauperism, says our report, is greater during the working years of life than among the very old or very young. For the whole of England and Wales the number of able-bodied persons in receipt of relief in the period 1896-1906 showed an increase of probably more than 35 per cent. over 1871-80.

The English conscience, we take it, has grown habituated to pauperism. But the English conscience has not grown used as yet to the non-professional and non-hereditary pauper, to that class which sinks into pauperism not because it won't work, but because it can't. To the problem of the unemployed, the Royal Commission gave earnest consideration. We are no longer in the simple times of 1834, when a commission last wrestled with the Poor Laws:

> Whilst the moral causes contributing to pauperism and unemployment remain much the same as before, the material influences regulating unemployment and industry have changed both in their character and their scope. Forces have come into operation affecting employment, its regularity, its cessation, and expansion, which are quite beyond local control. There are modifications and developments in our industrial system which cannot be ignored; and their products and wreckage when either out of employment or in distress require a treatment more elastic and varied than the simple method which eighty years ago was sufficient to cope with able-bodied pauperism in agricultural districts.

Upon these modern complications we need merely touch. They are numerous and well-known. There is the evil of casual labor. The stress of machinery and competition calls for skilled men, and uses them up quickly. The workers who have not the necessary skill and those who have been squeezed dry by the modern industrial system constitute the "stagnant pools of casual labor which are getting larger and still more casual." It is the boast of modern industry that it has found the way to utilize the labor of the untrained man and the child. But it is the curse of the modern industrial system that it uses the untrained man and the child to their own ultimate disadvantage:

> In modern industry the middle-aged are senile, and the senile are not employed. Skilled men in their prime are at a premium, but many of our boys reach their prime unskilled, and others, degenerates, never reach any prime at all.

The man of forty-five who is too old to be kept profitably at the work he could once do well, and the boy who starts as a messenger boy or in some other "blind-alley" occupation, meet as recruits in the army of the casually employed. It is they who, in times of exceptional distress, swamp the relief works instituted for the men of steadier occupation. The casual laborer gets from 55 to 75 per cent. of all aid doled out on such occasions.

And the remedies? The commission recognizes how complicated is the problem. Yet it holds, not too optimistically, that much can be done. It suggests measures preventive rather than strictly remedial, designed "not so much for the distressed unemployed" as for the purpose of "preventing persons from becoming distressed unemployed." The commission urges technical and special education and a raising of the age of required attendance at school, in order to keep boys from being sent into the "blind alleys." It lays great stress on the usefulness of public labor exchanges, or employment bureaus, in increasing the mobility of labor; Germany, it is pointed out, has 700 such bureaus, and they find work for 150,000 persons every month. It urges upon employers the duty of regularizing their seasons of production so as to reduce to a minimum the large reserve of unemployed labor which modern industry seemingly demands. It discusses the possibilities of insurance against unemployment, of labor colonies, of emigration. We have here, in fact, what has been described as a series of economic essays on the entire subject of unemployment.

The problem is immensely difficult. But the question is whether England hitherto has tried to do what can be done towards a solution, what has been seriously attempted in other countries, even where the needs are not so pressing. Technical education—Germany is trying that. Labor exchanges—again Germany is the model. Insurance—they have been experimenting with that on a vast scale in the Kaiser's realm. Has it ever occurred to English statesmen that Germany is threatening British supremacy in other ways than by Dreadnought-building? In England elementary education is still chiefly concerned with the struggle between Nonconformist and Anglican ideals. In England the universities are only beginning to reach down to the strata below the "gentleman." But how long can a nation in the present age of democracy hold its own while clinging to a system involving vast human ignorance and human wastage? Can a growing list of battleships permanently make up for a growing multitude of paupers?

EDWARD FITZGERALD.

Over in the town of Woodbridge, where the sluggish waters of Suffolk crawl to the sea, they are celebrating this week the centenary of a poet and sage and lover of books. One hopes and believes that there will be nothing garish in the ceremony, that no boastful eulogium will be spoken over the rose-bush, brought from the far-away tomb of his Omar, that grows by his resting-place. Let him quiet consummation have. We feel a personal interest in his memory, and as time goes on he, who was once so loved of Tennyson and Carlyle and Thackeray as Old Fitz (always "old"), grows to be almost the dearest of the Victorian names. Not for what he accomplished, not for his "Rubáiyát," which, if truth be told, has been a little cheapened by overmuch quotation and imitation; but for his life and the record of that life in the inimitable letters. If the locked door of the past were opened for one moment, how many of us out of all the privileges of those years would choose an hour's walk with FitzGerald—in Regent Street on that early day, perhaps, when with Tennyson he stopped before two figures of Dante and Goethe, in a shop window, and asked the poet: "What is there in old Dante's face that is missing in Goethe's?" And Tennyson (whose profile then, according to FitzGerald, had a remarkable likeness to Dante's) said: "The Divine." If we had been there we should have heard FitzGerald's reply, which he omits in the letter written long afterwards to Professor Norton. Or perhaps we would choose rather one of those nights when, in indescribable attire and with his great plaid shawl wrapped about his head, he used to walk alone over the flat meadows about Woodbridge, muttering to himself who knows what strange fancies suggested by the opaque shadows of the moon and by the windmills that reminded him of his hero, Don Quixote.

It is for his odd ways and quaint in-

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discretions largely that we love the man, but beneath this feeling lies an admiration no less real, if harder to analyze. Many critics have tried to reconcile the paucity of his achievements with his undoubted intellectual powers, and have given reasons for his long isolation from the world. They are wont to build their theories on some supposed weakness of the will or taint of modern indecision. They may be right, but for our part we prefer to regard him simply as a philosopher, and to place him in the great company of sages and saints who have deliberately turned their eyes away from what seemed to them the world's folly. It may be a wrong ideal, at least it is one which the world cannot afford to encourage; yet amid all our bustle and noise there is a certain wholesome check in the thought of such men as Newman in his Oratory, contemplating the mysteries of religion, or FitzGerald, shutting himself off from his famous friends to smile at their anxious ambitions.

These men, in one way or another, were caught in the net of the present, in the *Strom der Welt*—Carlyle thundering against its iniquities, Thackeray dallying with its conceits, Tennyson laboring to build in rhyme a meeting-place for the old faith and the new scientific inquisitiveness. What if they had seen and felt that a few passing years would sweep away all these things, merely to bring in other iniquities, and conceits, and compromises? Would not their hands have been palsied, and would not they have sunk into that philosophic silence which Carlyle so noisily proclaimed? Action, such a life as FitzGerald's seems to say, is based on the fallacy of the present:

> Death seems to rise like a Wall against one whichever way one looks. When I read Boswell and other Memoirs now, what presses on me most is—All these people who talked and acted so busily are gone. It is said that when Talma advanced upon the Stage, his Thought on facing the Audience was, that they were all soon to be Nothing.

The sense of the present as a fleeting point of time without meaning, rather than any failure of will, was what drove FitzGerald from the crowded activities of London and made him a solitary recluse. Such a philosophy carries with it, no doubt, its own penalty; and, fleeing from the world, he could not altogether escape the hounds of *ennui:*

> For all which idle ease I think I must be damned. I begin to have dreadful suspicions that this fruitless way of life is not looked upon with satisfaction by the open eyes above. One really ought to dip for a little misery; perhaps, however, all this ease is only intended to turn sour by-and-by.

But for all that, it is not fair to say that his life or his mind was morbid. Against such a view the wholesomeness of his reading alone is sufficient evidence. There yet remains to be written a thorough-going treatise on the likes and dislikes of one who pretended "to no genius but to taste." Why did he think "Pendennis" "very stupid"? Why did he set Richardson far above Fielding? Why could he find no interest in "Gil Blas"? These are questions not easy to answer in accord with his other tastes; but in general it is clear that he clung to the writers who give a broad, fluid picture of life; with Tennyson, he loved "those large, still books." It was a part of his abstinence from the present that he could not abide writing harassed with problems; and his distaste is well-known for the poems of Tennyson's own middle period, which dealt with questions of evolution and religion and social disease. It was his pleasure to have Montaigne "drop in to chat with and comfort" him. Scott he heartily enjoyed. He reads "The Pirate," and exclaims:

> With all its faults of detail, often mere carelessness, what a broad Shakespearean daylight over it all, with no effort . . . They won't beat Sir Walter in a hurry.

It was the *sprezzatura*, as Castiglione called it, that tickled him, the manner of a gentleman in letters who wrote for pleasure and disdained the tricks and toil of professionalism. And so "Don Quixote" was of all books his perennial delight, both for its ease and largeness, and for its philosophy of disillusion. Sophocles, too, he read much, especially when at sea with his great skipper, "Posh." Mme. de Sévigné never tired him, and the human realism of Crabbe appealed to him more than all the airy visions of a romantic like Shelley.

No, he was not morbid, and there was no taint in his will. Of all the great men of that age, he was distinctly the philosopher. And we, in our busy days, love him for his flight from business. We take his wisdom and his relish of disillusion, with no fear that his bankruptcy of idlness will be ours.

THE NEW ENGLISH REQUIREMENTS FOR COLLEGE.

The report of the National Conference on Uniform Entrance Requirements in English, which met in this city February 22, has now been published. The prescriptions for reading for the years 1913, 1914, and 1915 show a considerable improvement over those now in force; and, if we look back through a period of ten or fifteen years, the progress may even be called striking.

It is easy to criticise our whole scheme of the study of English as artificial and therefore ineffective. The true way to acquire the habit of reading good books is to begin very early in your father's large and well-chosen library. Your habits of speech should, obviously, be formed by imitation of your cultivated parents and schoolmates. In such a happy environment the art of clear writing is easily mastered; it may almost be said to come by nature. But these ideal conditions are exactly what do not exist in America. To-day teachers of English are engaged in a desperate struggle against what seems a rising tide of sheer illiteracy. Boys of all nationalities, from every stratum of society, handicapped by all kinds of disadvantages in home-training, are dumped on our schools and colleges. It is with the aim of imparting a faint tinge of literacy to this raw, unhomogeneous, and intractable material that our programmes in English are planned. Those who rail most bitterly at the folly of teaching English have yet to suggest any other practicable method of conveying to the children of alien—or, for that matter, native—parentage, a few hints as to the value and richness of their step-mother tongue. When we remember that, according to a recent investigation, only 45 per cent. of the pupils in the public high schools of New York city are of American parentage, and that in the grammar schools the proportion is probably smaller still, we may wonder, not that the results of the instruction in English are often grotesque, but that they are, on the whole, so satisfactory.

We are glad to see that the new requirement lays somewhat more stress on formal grammar: "English grammar should ordinarily be reviewed in the secondary school; and correct spelling and grammatical accuracy should be

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rigorously exacted in connection with all written work." Further, the examination "may include . . . questions upon grammar." The extension of the kindergarten methods to the upper grades threatened at one time to drive formal grammar from the schools. That admirable discipline was condemned as too dry and unentertaining for high-spirited children who must be amused at all costs. That folly, however, we are apparently outgrowing. The National Conference also urges that the English teachers should not bear the whole burden of instruction in English, and that their work should not be, as it often is, undone by the other teachers:

> Special instruction in language and composition should be accompanied by concerted effort of teachers in all branches to cultivate in the student the habit of using good English in his recitations and various exercises, whether oral or written.

It is, however, in the list of books to be read with the notion of getting actual pleasure out of them that the greatest changes have been made. The chief narrative parts of the Old Testament appear for the first time, not as an absolute requirement, but as an alternative. This is one way of contending against the appalling ignorance of the Bible concerning which we hear such loud complaints. The conference shows, further, a praiseworthy tendency to abandon books which—however important their place in the history of literature, and however interesting, therefore, to professors of literature—bore the young. Such, for example, are Chaucer's "Prologue," Spenser's "Faerie Queene," and Pope's "Rape of the Lock." De Quincey's "Joan of Arc" and "English Mail Coach," Carlyle's "Heroes and Hero Worship," Emerson's "Essays," and Ruskin's "Sesame and Lilies"—all of them food only for the exceptionally intelligent child—also go. In their place we have Macaulay's "Clive" and "Hastings," Thackeray's "English Humorists," selections from Lincoln, Parkman's "Oregon Trail," Thoreau's "Walden," Huxley's "Autobiography" and selections from his "Lay Sermons," and Stevenson's "Inland Voyage" and "Travels with a Donkey." Two capital books are added to the roll of fiction, "Robinson Crusoe" and Stevenson's "Treasure Island." The problem of cultivating a taste for good reading is not, be it noted, so easy as it was even two decades ago. Now books must compete, not only with the yellow journals, but with the scores of yellow magazines that shriek their attractions from every news-stand. The conference is likewise to be commended for clinging to the sound notion that not all reading is to be for mere recreation. There is still a requirement for study, "intended as a natural and logical continuation of the student's earlier reading, with greater stress laid upon form and style, the exact meaning of words and phrases and the understanding of allusions. For this close reading are provided a play, a group of poems, an oration, and an essay." It may be a pity to make any piece of literature a *corpus vile* for dissection, but there seems no other way of accomplishing a result which seems most desirable.

And finally the conference urges the plan of writing compositions based on the student's "personal experience, general knowledge, and studies other than English." A few years ago the subjects for composition in the admission examinations were drawn almost wholly from the required reading. The themes thus produced were cut-and-dried, stilted, and generally vague bits of pseudo-criticism, which encourage pupils in the habit of slipshod thinking and hazy expression. The failure of that method has already forced the colleges to allow or require for entrance a composition, say, a description or a narrative, that shall show power of reporting direct observation. The preparatory schools will therefore spend less time and effort in futile little essays on "George Eliot's Skill in Characterization as Displayed in 'Silas Marner'"; we shall have fewer infant pedants and more boys who can give a plain statement of what they see, hear, or think.

OUR DEMOCRATIC AMERICAN COLLEGES.

When Edwin E. Slosson started on his tour of American universities, to collect material for the current series of articles in the *Independent*, he placed at the head of the list of questions that he purposed to ask, "Does the spirit of democracy prevail in this university?" He soon dropped the question as useless, because it was answered everywhere before he asked it, and always in the same way. The faculty, students, and alumni of each university agreed on the purity of its democracy. James Bryce recently praised this spirit of democracy, and referred to the United States as the nation having the largest proportion of its young men in colleges. That a nation devoted, at least theoretically, to democratic ideals and popular education should rejoice in all this is natural. It is equally natural that those whose main business in life reveals the shortcomings of the American college should ask whether this democratic spirit in higher education is altogether praiseworthy. Let us see what kind of institution we have built in devotion to democratic ideals. If we are not willing to accept, unchallenged, Prof. Barrett Wendell's conclusion that "college education is to-day chiefly notable for its ineffectiveness"; if we resent the sweeping arraignments by Clarence F. Birdseye and by Abraham Flexner, yet there are innumerable other critics whose charges we must meet. Condemnation of the college is the order of the day. Within two months the *Atlantic Monthly*, the *Educational Review*, the *Dial*, the *Independent*, the *New England Magazine*, the *Columbia University Quarterly*, the *University Magazine*, and *Science* have published articles which tend to the conclusion that "the college is the least satisfactory part of our educational system and has urgent need to justify itself."

I.

To what is due this "weakening of intellectual stamina observed among undergraduates"? Is it not in part our democratic indulgence toward incompetency which clears the track of annoying obstructions in the race for numbers and tuition fees? To what inconsistencies it leads our college faculties! "Such and such subjects *must* be presented for admission," or "fourteen of these points are *required* of all candidates," our current catalogues declare, withholding as a rule the information most eagerly sought by the prevailing type of preparatory schoolboy, namely, how many subjects or points a boy may fail to present and yet be admitted. These boys are ingenious; they are sure to find out how many of the "required" points are required; for their interest is not so much in the profession of the catalogue as in the performance of the college. Thus it happens that to a majority of candidates our colleges virtually say: "According to our professed standards, you are not prepared to undertake college work. Although the secondary school opportunities are greater than ever before, although the wider range of admission subjects makes failure every year less excusable, yet you have failed to present our minimum requirements. Nevertheless, we admit you, allow you to try to do college work in the same classes with those who are prepared, and, in addition, we require you to make up your deficiencies in secondary school work." This is substantially what Harvard Col-

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lege said this year to 58 per cent. of the 607 freshmen. At Yale, 57 per cent. of the incoming class, and at Columbia about the same proportion, were admitted with less than the "required" points. Nineteen of the freshmen admitted to the college department of Columbia University were deficient in a full year of preparatory school work. At Princeton, 201 out of 360 were thus admitted with "conditions." And there is no reason to suppose that our strongest institutions are in this respect the greatest sinners among us. There is only too much concrete evidence to the contrary.

Furthermore, if this overlooking of inequalities is not sufficient to satisfy the most democratic of candidates, he always has left the opening for "special students." If he will step in through this back door, he will find himself in the same classes with those who enter by the front door. He will be called a "special student," or a "freshman on trial," or a "provisional candidate for a degree," or a "student on probation"; but he does not care He is confident that an institution so devoted to democratic ideals as to make his entrance easy will not make his continued residence difficult. Maturity and earnestness of purpose, it is true, should admit some candidates who, for good reasons, have not trod the beaten path to the college gates. But there is reason to believe that a majority of the 4,073 "special students," enrolled last year in the institutions included in the latest report of the Carnegie Foundation, slipped in through the back door merely because they were not qualified to enter the front door, and should have been barred out altogether.

As true Americans we are proud of the principle that the higher education should be open to every boy who is prepared for it, and who is ready to make the sacrifices it involves. But was it in devotion to this ideal that one New England college admitted this year, without examination, a boy whose school declined to certify him in a single subject? Was it in devotion to this ideal that another New England college admitted a star half-back with but half a school course to his credit? that another New England college employed on a famous football team three men who had failed in their academy course? that another New England college accepted two candidates in violation of its agreement with the Certificate Board? that another New England college welcomed, as captain of its baseball team, a boy under discipline by a rival college? that another New England college credited with advanced Latin a full-back who had failed in the second year Latin of his academy?

II.

Now the immediate effect on the schools of this democratic leniency toward the unfit, which, as President Pritchett of the Carnegie Foundation says, easily falls into indiscriminate charity, is to hamper the work of all those teachers who are honestly striving to promote genuine sustained intellectual effort; and, at the same time, such leniency makes it easier for lazy and weak-backed teachers to tolerate slip-shod work. The college is further hampered by the extra burdens placed on the unfit. Unless our devices for determining preparation for college are useless, those students most heavily "conditioned" must be, as a class, least fit for college work. Yet on precisely this class we lay the heaviest load. Then, when some students are allowed to take six courses, while many are taking only four, it stands to reason that the amount of work required in each course must be diminished, to the detriment of college standards, unless those students taking six courses are conspicuously fit to carry 50 per cent. more work than other students. Quite the contrary is often the case, since those who take extra courses do so to make up entrance conditions or deficiencies in college work. According to all logic, students should be allowed to take more than the required number of courses in one year, only on the evidence of extraordinary ability.

The authorities of some of our State universities, politicians as they are, or partly dependent on politicians, incline to the idea that has long clogged our public high schools—that a period of residence of any sober and faithful child of a taxpayer entitles him to graduation. Nor are the ideals of all our privately endowed colleges illumined by a much brighter light. Jealous of the rapid growth of State institutions (they have grown twice as rapidly as all others in the past twenty years), our private colleges incline toward the patently absurd theory that nearly every boy should go to college and stay there. Our public grammar schools, which are obliged to take and to keep all sorts of raw material, have some excuse for the pernicious lock-step, through which bright boys form vicious habits of idling, while dull boys in the same classes are being dragged along. But private endowed colleges, free from the most harassing drawbacks of public schools, have no excuse for allowing the mediocre to set the pace for the rest.

III.

If I were to define democracy in American college life, I would borrow a phrase from Dean Bentley—"our ill-advised belief in the universal efficacy of college education to make a good piece of furniture out of a poor stick of wood." Accepting this definition, we are safe in declaring that the present wide distribution of scholarships in American colleges—made with an eye to enrolment figures—is truly democratic. Certainly we are not using these trust funds, as best we may, to further Ruskin's aim of education, "to raise the fittest into positions of influence, and to give to every scale of intellect its natural sphere." Every secondary school teacher has been repeatedly surprised, I doubt not, to learn that boys whom he regarded as hardly fit for college have had no difficulty in securing scholarships. This must have been at the expense of those better fitted. The best youth the country affords are given half a chance in order that some of the weakest may have an equal chance. As long as scholarships are used as a means of attracting numbers, there will be insufficient aid for the few students of conspicuous worth. Then, to atone for this thin spreading of its funds, our democracy errs still further in favoring self-supporting students at the expense of intellectual standards. Many faculties, through sympathy for indigent men who are ambitious to secure a liberal education, allow them to remain in college under conditions which render a liberal education impossible. The rest of the students suffer, because the college work must be tempered to those well-intending, but not necessarily clever, boys who are obliged to spend a large part of their time and effort in extraneous occupations.

IV.

A good deal of nonsense is heard about the superiority of the small college over the large, and the superiority of the city college over the country college. Size and location are relatively insignificant matters, compared with the calibre of the faculty and the standard of work. Large colleges as a class are superior to small colleges as a class, partly because their administrators and faculties as a body are men of greater insight and courage. Yet it is easy to name a score of small colleges that surpass a score of large universities, and there is an ever-increasing number of parents who stake their sons and daughters on the belief that there are to-day small colleges superior to the best of university colleges. Such a belief seems to many as yet unwarranted. But the conviction is growing that a small college with the requisite insight and courage to become "a Johns Hopkins for undergraduates," the Balliol of America, would soon take first rank among us, and find its degree the most highly prized in America. Though it were located in the frontier forests of Aroostook County, there would be, every autumn, a beaten path to and from its gateway.

Nor need such a college suffer any loss in real democracy. Harvard and Princeton are regarded by some people as too aristocratic, but surely nobody ascribes this alleged defect to the fact

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that Harvard has rejected hundreds of deficient candidates who have been promptly accepted by other colleges, or to the fact that Harvard this year records a loss of forty-eight "special students." Nor has any one condemned Princeton as too aristocratic because, within the past six years, Princeton has dropped 680 incompetent students. The fact that Harvard and Princeton, alone among the universities and colleges of the East, exhibit a "loss" in enrolment for the past six years may well be connected causally rather with their recognized gains in efficiency than with their supposed loss in democratic spirit. President Tucker of Dartmouth said, a few years ago, "I do not understand how a college under the natural laws of growth can be reduced, except in violation of some one of the principles of democracy." If this be the only way to reduce a college, let us then violate that principle of democracy—if such it may be called—that refuses to discriminate between the fit and the unfit. Let us then violate that principle of democracy which in practice often seems to declare that every man is born free to enter college and equal to its opportunities.

WILLIAM T. FOSTER.

Brunswick, Me.

FRENCH BOOKS ON HISTORY.

PARIS, March 12.

"Les Origines de la réforme," by Pierre Imbart de la Tour, professor at the University of Bordeaux, after a first volume on the political state of the time, treats, in this second volume, of the Church and the crisis of the renaissance (Hachette). The anarchy prevailing in the Church in France, with a secular spirit; the new ideas due to the revelation of classic and Christian antiquity; Leo X and the awakening under influences so equivocal as Lefèvre d'Étampes and Erasmus, form the matter of this volume. The author's technical training, shown in his early works on the elections of French bishops and on rural parishes, together with his Catholic faith, gives him serious advantages in dealing with an age whose ideas, as well as forms of speech, differ so strikingly from those of most historians of the present day. The book is not only new in matter, but well written in form.

"Villeroy," by J. Nouaillac, is a study of that hereditary Secretary of State to Charles IX, Henry III, and Henry IV, from his birth in 1543 to the death of the latter king in 1610 (Champion). During this time Villeroy negotiated the first peace with the Protestants; but, after abandoning the League, he still showed himself favorable to Spain. The restless activity of the man under Marie de Médicis is not included in this volume. "Trois Familiers du Grand Condé," by Jean Lemoine and André Lichtenberger, tells pleasantly how the warrior's last years, passed in royal disfavor, were amused and edified by a Jesuit, an Oratorian, and an abbé—all perfect *originaux* (Champion). "Les Assemblées du clergé et le Jansénisme," by Abbé J. Bourlon, is a Catholic account of official ecclesiastical proceedings, in which weakness of technical knowledge rendered Sainte-Beuve incompetent (Bloud).

"Mémoires de la cour de Louis XIV," by the Italian fortune-teller, Primi Visconti, who won and held the favor of the Grand Monarque in spite of diplomatic intrigues and the Affair of Poisons, is a distinct addition to historical literature (Calmann-Levy). It has been translated from the Italian manuscript and duly provided with introduction, appendix, and notes by Jean Lemoine, librarian of the War Office. It fully bears out what Saint-Simon led us to expect. We see the court through the eyes of one whose success in trade depended on seeing from the inside. "Crépuscule d'Ancien Régime," by the Vicomte de Guichen (Perrin), describes separately various activities of France under the monarchy tottering slowly to its fall, from the bombardment of Genoa and the Doge at Versailles (1684-5), Paris society manners and morals under the Regent (1715-1723), and the end of the Seven Years War, to the dawning of a troubled day with the advent of Franklin (1776). "Le Secret du Régent et la politique de l'abbé Dubois," by Émile Bourgeois, the well-known professor of diplomatic history, deals with the Triple and Quadruple Alliances (1716-1718)—the beginnings of the secret diplomacy of the eighteenth century (A. Colin). It seems to be the first of a series following up the same subject and made possible by the opening of state archives to investigation. "Mlle. Sallé (1707-1756)," by Émile Dacier, is the life-story of a *danseuse* of the Opéra under Louis XV, which is also not without importance to complete history, and is written from unpublished documents. The Collection historique illustrée (Louis Michaud) has for its new volume "La Vie aux galères," by A. Savine, from the archives and memoirs. After the Bastille, the galleys were the chief terror of the old régime.

"Lettres de Belle de Zuylen (Madame de Charrière) à Constant d'Hermanches (1760-1775)," edited by the Neuchâtel professor, Philippe Godet, brings us into the intimacy of a person whose sole, but sure, claim to mention in history is her persistent friendships with an important set of historical characters (Plon). They centre in the remarkable career of Benjamin Constant, the Swiss Protestant of English teaching, who did more than any other to indoctrinate the earliest French Liberals. "La Jeunesse de Benjamin Constant (1767-1794)," by Gustave Rudler, a doctor of letters who has specialized in the matter, handles from numerous unpublished documents this disciple of the eighteenth century, his utilitarianism and pessimism, and his relations with Madame Charrière, his first Egeria. The same author gives us an aid to historical research in a companion small volume, "Bibliographie critique des œuvres de Benjamin Constant," with many hitherto unpublished documents (A. Colin). As to Madame de Charrière, she is situated for the general reader in Henry Bordeaux's latest work, "Portraits de femmes et enfants"; among the other portraits are Mlle. de Lespinasse (original of "Lady Rose's Daughter" of Mrs. Humphry Ward), and the vivacious Comtesse de Boigne, who tells so many tales of Benjamin Constant's political time (Plon). As nothing is negligible where history becomes personal, the love letters of Benjamin Constant (chosen for their literary perfection in the *genre*) appear in "Les plus jolies Lettres d'amour," collected by Annie de Pène, along with those of Madame Récamier, to whose set he belonged for a time, of Chateaubriand, Diderot, Balzac, and Gambetta.

"Claude Fauchet (1744-1794)" is the carefully studied life, in two volumes, of the court preacher who led the attack on the Bastille, sabre in hand, who became a bishop under the civil constitution of the clergy, and then, when he had been elected a Deputy to the Convention, found he had a conscience forbidding him to go further in the way of revolution. Naturally, he was accused of favoring Charlotte Corday, and, like her, his head was chopped off. The same special publisher of historical works (Champion) has brought out from the same period "Lettres inèdites de J. S. Rovère," who was a member of the Conseil des Anciens. The letters were written to his brother, Siméon-Stylite, who was constitutional bishop of Vaucluse, but resigned, and became comfortably mad after the Terror, leaving these letters behind him at his death in 1820. Their writer, in spite of the assistance he gave in tumbling down Robespierre, was packed off to Guiana, where he died in 1798. Dr. Victorin Laval of Vaucluse adds an appropriate introduction, epilogue, and notes. "Un Séjour en France de 1792 à 1795" is a new edition of the translation made by Taine of letters of a witness of the Revolutionary Terror (Hachette). "Journal d'une femme de cinquante ans (1778-1815)" is the second volume of writings left by the Marquise de La Tour du Pin and now published by her great-grandson (Chapelot). Her father-in-law was the minister of Louis XVI who returned from exile to testify in favor of his king and queen, for which

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he was guillotined; and her husband was the companion of Lafayette in America, to which he returned during the Terror in France; but later he refused to follow his old leader in allegiance to the modified Revolution of Louis Philippe. "Deux Jurés du Tribunal Révolutionnaire," by Alphonse Dunoyer, tells the authentic story of Vilate "le petit-maître" and Trinchard "l'homme de la Nature"—two of the men who have left Revolutionary justice a hissing and an abomination to all future generations (Perrin). "La Juridiction consulaire de Paris pendant la Révolution," by Georges Leclerc, judge of the Tribunal de Commerce, which has taken the place of the old-time "juges-consuls," takes us into the business litigations which went on calmly and with multitudinous *dossiers* while the Terror was cutting off its heads outside.

"Napoléon Ier, Empereur des Français," by Louis Lumet, gives 348 reproductions of pictures and engravings of the time, with appropriate text (10 francs, Nillson). "Souvenirs du Chevalier de Cussy," published by Count Marc de Germiny, is a considerable first volume of notes left by a "garde du corps," diplomat and consul-général, from 1795 to 1866 (Plon). His life-work came after Napoleon. "Les Rostopchine" is a fairly sensational family chronicle by the present Countess Lydia of that name (Juven). "She fears not to lift the veil from the personages, characters, and intrigues of a famous family—her own. In particular, she reveals to us in her grandmother, the great Catherine Rostopchine, a woman of fatality whose influence extended over grave events in the history of Russia, such, for example, as the burning of Moscow, whose causes had remained somewhat mysterious!" The book is in direct contradiction to her grandfather's defence of himself; but it shows what the world was like during the Napoleonic *épopée*. Rostopchine himself wrote significantly (for the whole history of Russia), "I was like an Asiatic drunk with opium!" Stories of less heroic persons, and more deliberately selfish, may be found in "Marie Louise et la cour d'Autriche entre les deux abdications (1814-1815)" by Baron de Méneval (Plon). "Le Dernier Effort de la Vendée (1832)," by Vicomte A. de Courson, from unpublished documents, plunges us back into violent, useless heroism for the Duchesse de Berry, wild mother of that tame last heir of the Bourbons, the Comte de Chambord, whom his followers dreamed of as Henry V of France down to these late years.

The sixth and last volume of "Les Indiscrétions de l'histoire," by Docteur Cabanès, ranges all through this France, which the Republic and the automobile have left forever in the past, from Louis XI explained by medicine to such questions as—Rousseau, did he commit suicide? Napoleon, was he sick at Waterloo? and that subject of ineffable French laughter—Louis XVIII and women. Really valuable is the index to the six volumes (A. Michel). The collection of Énigmes de l'histoire, edited by M. Vitrac, of the Bibliothèque Nationale, tries to give the finish to two legends in its new volume "La Fin de deux légendes," by Gustave Bord. They are the Affaire Léonard (Marie Antoinette's coiffeur) and the Baron de Batz, dear to Dumas. Another book dipping into many centuries is Ernest Dimnet's "Figures de moines"—English Benedictine monks of Douai, where they stuck after the Reformation until the Third Republic expelled them with the rest this other year; monks of La Trappe, whose founder looked askance at admiring friends of Port-Royal and outlived them in spiritual progeny, since his rule has monasteries in the United States, though also barred from France; an abbey in the eighteenth century; Shakespeare's monks; and some real letters from real monks (Perrin).

The new order breathes strongly in "P. J. Proudhon (1809-1865)," by Édouard Droz, professor of the university faculty of Besançon (Pages Libres). This doctrinaire, who is slowly coming into his own as a world-moving philosopher, was the direct inspirer of the Revolution of 1848 (George Sand is the witness); and he has been adopted as the father of that anarchist movement, which is destined to blight every success of theoretical Socialism. In this, he was only like Herbert Spencer: both refused to see that their teachings tended whither lawless disciples have led the way. "Le Principe d'équilibre et le Concert Européen," by Prof. Charles Dupuis shows how the old order has progressed from the Peace of Westphalia to Algeciras.

S. D.

NEWS FOR BIBLIOPHILES.

The third volume of Thomas Lindsley Bradford's "Bibliographers' Manual of American History," M to Q, 1,423 numbers, has just been published by Stan. V. Henkels & Co. of Philadelphia. Our notices of the two preceding volumes have not been very complimentary, and we are sorry not to be able to speak any more warmly of the third. It describes the historical works of Cotton and Increase Mather, and anonymous and general books relating to Massachusetts, New England, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and other States. Some of the latter items will hardly be sought for under the headings where they are inserted; but the index which will form Vol. V will probably make them more accessible. The heading Missouri is particularly full, and the compiler and publisher make acknowledgements to William Clark Breckenridge for most of the Missouri titles. More recent auction records might have been supplied on some titles, for example the copy of the rare "Relation of Maryland" (1635), which brought £400 on March 15, 1907, is not entered; nor is the Earl of Sheffield's copy of "News from New England" (1676), which brought £118 on November 4, 1907. Some books are entered twice even in this volume. The last of the five tracts in folio on King Philip's war, "The War in New England visibly ended" (1677), is entered under "More, Caleb," and again under "New England." Beauchamp Plantagenet's "Description of New Albion" (1648) is entered under the author's name, but the reprint is entered under New England.

Part V of the Henry W. Poor library will be sold by the Anderson Auction Co. in this city on April 5, 6, and 7. The most remarkable section of this part is the collection of French books formed by Valentine A. Blacque, seventy-two titles, mostly in fine bindings and some with added water-color drawings by famous artists. After Mr. Poor purchased the collection, he printed a few copies of a catalogue of it. Perhaps the most remarkable book of the lot is the first edition of "Les Sauvages de l'Europe" (1760) by Le Suire and Louvel, presented by the latter to Mme. de Pompadour. Another notable item is the manuscript "Office de la Vierge Marie" by Nicholas Jarry, calligrapher of Louis XIII and Louis XIV. This manuscript was executed for Anne of Austria, Queen of Louis XIII. It is in a mosaic binding by Trautz-Bauzonnet, and signed three times by him. Another important book is a large paper copy of Dorat's "Les Baisers" (1770), with illustrations by Eisen and other artists, generally considered the masterpiece of French illustration of the eighteenth century. Among the early English books are "The Whole Works of Samuel Daniel" (1623), with the dedication, lacking in most copies of this edition; the first edition of John Cleveland's "Character of a London Diurnall" (1644); Gower's "Confessio Amantis" (1554), and Willymat's "Prince's Looking Glass" (1603). In the eighteenth century are first editions of Sheridan's "The Rivals" (1775), Goldsmith's "Vicar of Wakefield" (1776), and "The Deserted Village" (1770). There are also first editions of Edward FitzGerald's "Euphranor" (1851), "Six Dramas of Calderon" (1853), "Salámán and Absál" (1857), "Agamemnon" (1876); the first edition of Keats's "Endymion" (1818); a presentation copy of George Meredith's "Poems" (1851), first edition; Dante Gabriel Rossetti's "Sister Helen" (1857); Ruskin's "Poems (1850), of which fifty copies only were printed; the first edition of Shelley's "St. Irvyne" (1811), "Queen Mab" (1813), "The Cenci" (1819), "Rosalind and Helen" (1819), Prometheus Unbound" (1820), "Hellas" (1822), and "Posthumous Poems" (1824); Swinburne's first book "The Queen-Mother and Rosamond" (1860), with the earliest form of title-page; first editions of Tennyson, John Addington Symonds, Andrew Lang, Robert Louis Stevenson, and other nineteenth-century English authors; a practically complete set of the publications of the Hakluyt Society, 152 volumes; and 127 volumes in various languages on the rose, uniformly bound in half rose morocco. Among manuscripts is a document signed by Ferdinand and Isa-

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bella of Spain, Madrid, 1495, and a collection of autographs of the signers of the Declaration of Independence, lacking only four, those of Gwinnett, Hewes, Middleton, and Taylor. As usual there are many book-club publications and books from special presses, some in handsome bindings.

On April 7 and 8, the Merwin-Clayton Sales Co. of this city will offer a collection chiefly remarkable for the long series (nearly 250 lots) on Ireland.

At a recent auction by C. G. Börner, in Leipzig, when a library said to have been collected in America was disposed of, the following prices were paid for first editions: Goethe's "Faust," 1,110 marks; "Götz," 705 marks; "Leiden des jungen Werthers," 445 marks; and "Die Räuber" (a soiled copy), 880 marks. A silhouette of Goethe as a youth, believed to be one of the earliest portraits extant, brought 385 marks; and a portrait of Schiller, by Romberg, showing the poet as a man, 445 marks.

Correspondence.

"THE HISTORY OF CARDENIO BY MR. FLETCHER AND SHAKESPEARE."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It seems to me that hardly enough attention has been paid to "Double Falsehood," the play which in 1727 Lewis Theobald produced both on the stage and in print, asserting that it was a revision of a manuscript play of Shakespeare. Some critics have treated the piece as pure forgery by Theobald. Others—the majority—have recognized an old Elizabethan foundation, but too much worked over to be attributed with certainty to any special author. "Double Falsehood" is a very close dramatization of the story of Cardenio in "Don Quixote." Now, in 1613 a play was acted by the King's men, entitled "Cardenno" or "Cardenna," and in 1653 there was entered in the Stationers' Register for Humphrey Moseley a play called "The History of Cardenio" by "Mr. Fletcher and Shakespeare." The question arises whether this play could have formed the basis of Theobald's revision.

External evidence is lacking, since Theobald's manuscripts have disappeared, possibly in the holocaust perpetrated by Warburton's cook. There are, however, some interesting points of internal evidence. In the first two acts of "Double Falsehood" and in Act iii, scenes 1 and 2, there are evident traces of an Elizabethan hand protruding through masses of Theobald; but what Elizabethan hand it is impossible to say. Beginning with iii, 3, however, there are many lines and passages, likewise half buried under Theobald, which no one intimately familiar with the Elizabethan drama should mistake; for they are clearly stamped with the peculiar, the most characteristic mannerisms of Fletcher. It is not merely the feminine ending, though that is conspicuously present. It is the feminine ending composed of two words, especially with a redundant "now," or "too," or "yet." It is the constantly recurring alliteration, the trick of repeating words, leaving them, and returning to them in a way hardly usual even with Fletcher's later imitators. Two passages, taken from many, will illustrate most of these points.

> *Violante*—*How* his Eyes shake Fire,
> And measure ev'ry Piece of Youth about me!
> The Ewes want Water, Sir: Shall I go drive 'em
> Down to the Cisterns? Shall I make haste, Sir?
> Would I were five Miles from him—*How* he gripes me!
> *Master*—Come, come, all this is not sufficient, Child,
> To make a Fool of me.—This is *a fine Hand, A delicate fine Hand*,—Never change Colour;
> You understand me,—and *a Woman's Hand*.—iv. 1.

> *Julio*—Since she is not Leonora, she is heav'nly.
> When she speaks next, listen as seriously,
> As Women do that have their Loves at Sea,
> What Wind blows ev'ry Morning.—
> *Violante*—I cannot get this false Man's Memory
> Out of my Mind. You Maidens, that shall live
> To hear my mournful Tale, when I am Ashes,
> Be wise; *and to an Oath no more* give Credit,
> To Tears, to Vows, (false Both!) or any Thing
> A Man shall promise, than to Clouds, that now
> Bear such a pleasing Shape, and now are nothing.
> For they will cozen, (if They may be cozen'd,)
> The very Gods they worship.—iv, 2.

The cloud figure in the last passage is curiously similar to one in Ordella's fine speech in "Thierry and Theodoret" (iv, 1). And many other resemblances of diction between "Double Falsehood" and Fletcher's acknowledged plays could be pointed out.

Now these traces of Fletcher occur constantly in certain distinct portions of "Double Falsehood." In other portions they do not occur at all. If then it is urged that Theobald forged the play, it must be admitted that he did it with a knowledge of the tradition of the Shakespeare-Fletcher authorship and the definite intention of imitating Fletcher. But it is almost certain on external grounds that he could have had no knowledge of that tradition, and in his preface he expressly deprecates the suggestion of some critics that there were traces of Fletcher in the play. It seems probable, therefore, considering the subject and the presence of Fletcher, that the play on which "Double Falsehood" was founded was the old "History of Cardenio."

That Shakespeare had any hand in the original play can, of course, hardly be proved. Moseley's attribution to him in 1653 is not very reliable; nor is Theobald's story about his manuscripts. That "Cardenno" or "Cardenna" was originally produced by the King's men in 1613 brings it at least into the period when, if ever, Shakespeare and Fletcher would have been working together. Passages in the portion of the play not Fletcher's have to my ear a turn or resonance more resembling Shakespeare than either Beaumont or Massinger, the writers most likely to have collaborated with Fletcher.

> You deal unkindly; misbecomingly,
> I'm loth to say: For All that waits on you,
> Is graced and graces.—i, 2;

> Such a Villany
> A Writer could not put down in his Scene,
> Without Taxation of his Auditory
> For Fiction most enormous.—iii, 1.

Finally, the action of "Double Falsehood" is much on the familiar lines of the Beaumont and Fletcher and Shakespeare romances. Especially noticeable is it that in the three plays of Shakespeare's last period and in "Pericles" the romantic theme of the restoration of lost children to their parents plays an important part, and in "Cymbeline" it forms the main element of the effective series of climaxes which closes the play. Now in "Double Falsehood," Act v, we have the same theme also elaborately worked up in telling climaxes and, curiously enough, almost the only extensive deviation from the Cervantic original is introduced to bring about this result.

I shall have, before long, a much fuller discussion of this matter in *Modern Language Notes*, and I hope later to reprint "Double Falsehood" in a way to make it more available for study than it is at present.

GAMALIEL BRADFORD, JR.

Wellesley Hills, Mass.

SOME PARALLELS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Last month there issued from the press of an American publishing house a book entitled "The Rhetoric of Oratory." In his preface the author says (p. vii): "There is no modern text-book, so far as the author is aware, which covers the same ground as the present volume." Yet a comparison of the book with another entitled "Modern American Oratory," copyrighted some eleven years ago by another publisher, reveals a similarity rather alarming. There is submitted herewith a list—by no means exhaustive—of parallel passages from the two books. It would appear that the later writer has a standard of originality peculiarly his own. This conclusion seems further justified by a comparison of portions of a book by the same author, entitled "Extempore Speaking" (issued by Ginn & Co. last year), with a well-known little book by Prof. Brander Matthews, "Notes on Speech-Making."

ERNEST M. HALLIDAY.

Urbana, Ill., February 16.

"Modern American Oratory," by Ralph Curtis Ringwalt. Henry Holt & Co., 1898.	"The Rhetoric of Oratory," by Edwin Du Bois Shurter. The Macmillan Co., 1909.
. . . Aristotle says that oratory (or rhetoric, as the whole science of written and spoken discourse was denominated by the Greeks) is "the faculty of finding all the means of persuasion on any subject." Cicero, who is followed by Dr. Blair, defines it as the "art of persuasion"; while Quintilian and John Quincy Adams agree in calling it the "art of speaking well." . . . That of Aristotle, since it has to do with but one branch of the subject, what the rhetoricians called invention, . . . may be rejected at once.—P. 3.	. . . Aristotle says that oratory (rhetoric) is "the faculty of finding all the means of persuasion on any subject." Quintilian and John Quincy Adams define it as "the art of speaking well," while Cicero and Dr. Blair agree in calling it "the art of persuasion." But Aristotle's definition, since it relates primarily to a single branch of rhetoric, that of Invention, is to-day obviously inadequate.—P. 2.
. . . The much-quoted remark of Charles James Fox, when he was told that a speech read well, "Then it must have been a bad speech," is as far from the truth as the popular estimate which ranks Edmund Burke among the world's great orators.—P. 6.	. . . The importance of the manner of delivery gave rise to Fox's dictum that a good speech never reads well. There may be some truth in this, but the statement is no doubt too sweeping. True, there are some noted orators, such as Burke, whose speeches are more effective as literature than they were when first delivered.—P. 6.
. . . We can now advance a step, and turn to the broad divisions into which orations have been	The broad divisions into which oratory has been classified have been variously named by dif-

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classified. Although variously named by different writers, these divisions—a single addition excepted—have always been intrinsically the same: they have been based on one of two points of view, either upon the attitude of an audience toward a speech, or upon the purpose of the speaker, and usually upon the former. For example, Aristotle . . . finds three attitudes in an audience, and upon these he bases his divisions of oratory. He says that audiences are either judges of things lying in the past, as are members of assemblies and deliberative bodies; or critics, as are those who estimate only the ability of a speaker or the power and charm of a speech. Then, from this analysis, he draws the conclusion that there can be but three kinds of speeches — judicial, deliberative, and epideictic, the oration of display. To this division, the birth of Christianity, and the part played in the spreading of its doctrine by spoken discourse, has added a new, a fourth type of oratory; but with this exception, Aristotle's classification is as valuable to-day as it was two thousand years ago. We may therefore adopt it, . . . changing a little, although somewhat arbitrarily, the nomenclature. . . . We shall then have four great divisions of oratory, as follows: (1) deliberative, the oratory of the assembly; (2) forensic, the oratory of the bar; (3) demonstrative (also called occasional), the oratory of display; and (4) pulpit, the oratory of the Christian Church.—P. 7, 8, 9.

Although deliberative oratory has been defined as the oratory of the assembly, the inference must not be drawn that it is restricted in scope to speeches before legislative assemblies; . . . Any speech before a number of people who listen as judges, where the object of the speaker is to induce his hearers to accept or reject a given policy for the future, may be called a deliberative speech. Thus to this class belong not only most congressional efforts, but speeches in conventions, those on the hustings, those in public meetings of many sorts, as well as those before synods and conferences.—P. 9.

. . . Sedulous inquirers point to the harangues in the Bible, and to the stormy councils which enliven many pages of Homer as the first examples of deliberative speech. . . . In our own country different writers since the days of Aristotle, yet these divisions (with one exception) are intrinsically the same; they have been based upon the viewpoint of either the audience or the speaker, and usually the former. Thus Aristotle bases his division upon three points of view an audience may have. He says that audiences are judges either of things lying in the future, as are members of deliberative bodies; or of thing (sic) lying in the past, as are members of judicial tribunals; or of things of the present, as are critics of the presentation of some topic of the moment. He then deduces this classification: (1) Deliberative, (2) Judicial, and (3) Epidictic oratory (to show forth, or display). —P. 15.

. . . Since the time of Aristotle the rise of Christianity has added another kind of oratory, that of the pulpit. . . . However, for the purpose of separate consideration, and changing—somewhat arbitrarily — Aristotle's nomenclature, we may classify oratory into the following four divisions: (1) Deliberative, the oratory of the assembly, (2) Forensic, the oratory of the bar, (3) Pulpit, the oratory of the Church, and (4) Demonstrative, the oratory of the special occasion.—P. 16.

While deliberative oratory is usually associated with speeches before legislative assemblies, its scope is not confined to such bodies. Any speech addressed to hearers with the object of inducing them to accept or reject a given policy for the future may be called a deliberative speech. Hence this kind of oratory includes not only congressional and parliamentary speeches, but also addresses before conventions, synods, conferences, and public meetings of various sorts.—P. 17.

. . . Some writers point to the harangues in the Old Testament and to the stormy councils described by Homer as the first examples of deliberative speech. . . . It lighted the fires which burned into the Reformation and the French Revolution. . . . And its history is inextricably interwoven with the history of our own country—the Revolution, the adoption of the Constitution, . . . and the great governmental and social problems of the last half century. —P. 17.

. . . Its preëminence arises from three causes: the comprehensiveness of its purpose, the subjects with which it deals, and the character of the audiences addressed. —P. 18.

. . . The great oration in the English Parliament or in the American Congress is now an unusual episode. . . . Further, some influence may be attributed to the character of the questions dealt with at present. These are, as a rule, no longer the larger problems of national policy, but details of administration, the currency, tariff schedules, . . . —questions that obviously do not lend themselves to emotional speaking.—P. 19, 20.

Arguments and appeals were employed which to-day would be regarded as extraneous and wholly irrelevant. . . . As some one has said, Cicero's argument was that "Archias was a Roman citizen because he was a Greek poet."—P. 23.

The general structure of a forensic oration, whether ancient or modern, whether delivered to the court or to the jury, consists of these three essential parts: (1) a statement of the facts of the case, (2) a statement, deduced from these facts, of the points at issue, and (3) the proof of these issues.—P. 27, 28.

It must be confessed that the term "demonstrative," when used to designate a division of oratory, conveys but little meaning.—P. 35.

. . . The subjects for eulogy, however, were not restricted to men, as they usually are to-day, but gods, cities, and even inanimate objects or abstract virtues might be made the themes of praise.—P. 37.

. . . A man may be a successful lawyer without being an advocate, or a statesman without being a deliberative orator, but he cannot well be a minister without being a preacher.—P. 28.

. . . Matter which to-day would be regarded as extraneous and wholly irrelevant was made the basis of argument. . . . As one writer has said, Cicero's argument was that "Archias was a Roman citizen, because he was a great Greek poet."—P. 18.

The general structure of all forensic speeches, whether they be ancient or modern, or intended for judge or jury, is the same; they consist of three essential parts: a statement of the facts on which the case rests; a statement, drawn from these facts, of the points at issue; and the proof of the issues.—P. 22.

The term demonstrative, it must be confessed, when applied to oratory conveys but very little meaning.—P. 24.

. . . The subjects of eulogy were not, however, so restricted then as they are now; gods and cities, as well as men, could appropriately be made the themes of praise.—P. 27.

. . . A man may become a statesman without being an orator, a lawyer without being an advocate; but he cannot well be a successful minister without being a preacher.—P. 45.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Halliday takes exception to the statement in the preface of my book, "The Rhetoric of Oratory," to the effect that "there is no modern text-book, so far as the author is aware, which covers the same ground as the present volume." But the statement is true—so far as the author is aware—and it was for this very reason that the preparation of the book was first undertaken, some ten years ago. Much would depend, it is true, upon what is meant by "covering the same ground." Every teacher of oratory is, of course, well aware of Mr. Ringwalt's excellent essay, "The Theory of Oratory," contained in his volume, "Modern American Oratory." But his book is not primarily a text on oratory, but a collection of orations for critical study. The sub-title is: "Seven Representative Orations, Edited with Notes, and an Essay on the Theory of Oratory." This essay, or text proper, is contained in 90 of the 329 pages of the whole book. "The Rhetoric of Oratory" is primarily a text-book, the text proper being 217 of the 305 pages; and approximately two-thirds of the latter book treats of topics not dealt with in the former. So, when it is said that the two books do not cover the same ground, this is meant in the sense that a man who goes 90 miles over a given course does not cover the same ground as one who goes 217 miles, or, in the sense that one who cultivates one acre of ground does not cover the same ground as he who cultivates three acres.

Another statement in the preface to "The Rhetoric of Oratory" answers, at least in part, the *prima facie* case presented in several of the foregoing parallelisms. The statement referred to reads:

> The author would not underrate his indebtedness to some of the modern treatises (cited in the text), but for the most part the present treatise simply aims to adapt ancient precepts to present-day conditions. . . .

No writer could seriously pretend to any originality as to the principles and theories relative to the science and art of oratory, so elaborately worked out by Aristotle and the other ancient writers, or as to the application of these theories to present-day conditions. The case before us, then, can raise questions only of form, not of matter; and it is impossible adequately to deal with questions of form without quoting in full what is given above as either a part of a sentence, or as a segregated sentence out of a paragraph, and this method neither time nor space will permit. But, if we take, for example, the first parallel passages above given, it would not appear to me alarming if, in mere statements of facts and theories, similarity in form of statement were to be found in several other modern books that might readily be cited. So of the second instance: the quotation of Fox's familiar remark, and the well-recognized estimate of Burke as to matter vs. delivery—these matters have been commented upon by numberless writers, with a similarity in form of statement not necessarily alarming. So of the third set of parallel passages, relative to the divisions of oratory; any one interested may find parallel passages in Dr. Blair's "Lectures on Rhetoric and Belles Lettres," John Quincy Adams's "Lectures on Rhetoric and Oratory," and in numerous later books—and all going back at last to Aristotle's analysis.

Now, I have no desire to beg the question. I owe much to Mr. Ringwalt's essay, and Mr. Halliday has succeeded in convincing me that I owe more to it than I probably realized when writing those chapters of my book which deal with topics treated of in both books. I am convinced, for example, that in the matter of the differentiation of oratory from other forms of

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public speaking (parallel passages in the treatment of which, by the way, might well be added to Mr. Halliday's list); I am indebted very largely to, and have followed closely, Mr. Ringwalt's analysis. Although his book is cited in a foot-note reference (p. 25), doubtless more specific acknowledgment of the help derived from his essay should have been given. This omission I exceedingly regret, and shall at once take steps to correct. The oversight, however, may be explained by the fact that I used Mr. Ringwalt's book some three or four years with my classes; then, wishing to develop the subject along other lines, I used notes, including quotations and paraphrases from this and other works, ancient and modern, as the basis of informal lectures. These notes were the primary source for reference in the process of composition, while writing my book, and it is quite possible that segregated passages may be the result of unconscious memorizing, or of carelessness in transcribing what should have been either specifically acknowledged or given as quoted matter. The same remark applies to the other book mentioned by Mr. Halliday—although in the latter instance special acknowledgment is made in the preface of the help derived from Professor Matthews's little book.

But, all in all, if the two books in question be compared and judged *as a whole*—sentence by sentence, paragraph by paragraph, and chapter by chapter—on such a basis of judgment as this the author of "The Rhetoric of Oratory" is content to rest his case. EDWIN DUBOIS SHURTER.

University of Texas, February 28.

SENTIMENT VERSUS HISTORY IN NORTH CAROLINA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Some occurrences during the recent session of the North Carolina Legislature throw an amusing side light on the power of sentiment and of family pride to perpetuate historical error when it has been once established, and show the powerlessness of historical truth when confronted by popular tradition.

As is well known, many North Carolinians have long claimed, because of the so-called Mecklenburg Declaration of Independence, a priority over the national Declaration of July 4, 1776. In 1819 the report was first published that on May 20, 1775, Mecklenburg County, N. C., declared absolute independence of Great Britain. The claim was based on the statement of John McKnitt Alexander, who had been secretary of the meeting. His account of the proceedings on that day was written from memory twenty-five years after the event occurred, but was at that time believed to have been copied from the original records. The claim of Mecklenburg County was at once disputed, and in 1830 the State Legislature set gravely to work to establish by law the disputed facts. The survivors of the Mecklenburg meeting of May, 1775, were sought out; the statements of the secretary made from memory in 1800 were shown them, and they were asked if these statements accorded with their own memory of the events. Their answers, in the absence of more definite knowledge, tended to confirm the story of the secretary, and the whole was published with the sanction of the Legislature as the official version of the affair.

It is to be observed that there was then no particular question as to the date or the exact language of the document. But in 1847 Dr. Joseph Johnson found the full set of twenty resolutions since known as the Mecklenburg Resolves of May 31, 1775, which differ widely from the Declaration of May 20. From the discovery of the Resolves of May 31, which are undoubtedly genuine, until the present time, there has been war between the advocates of the Declaration of the 20th and the Resolves of the 31st. Students outside of North Carolina who are not influenced by local feeling have been uniformly against the Declaration of the 20th. In fact, so far as I recall, no recognized historical student of the present generation has undertaken their defence. They have looked for their defence to the descendants of the signers and to an aggressive and overbearing public sentiment in Mecklenburg, which has to an extent permeated the State and given tone to the work of local historians. These have either accepted the 20th with its contradictions, or have neatly straddled. Within the last week there has appeared in the leading newspaper of the State a communication from one of the descendants, which calls for a suppression of "heresy" in regard to the 20th, and an intimation that if the teachers in the State schools cannot support that date they should resign.

But the light of history is dawning, even in North Carolina. In his recent work on the history of North Carolina through the colonial and revolutionary periods, Capt. S. A. Ashe treats this subject in the course of his narrative. To satisfy local public sentiment he gives all the documents on which the advocates of the 20th rely for their defence. Then, after discussing the whole subject with much detail, he cuts loose from tradition, defies public sentiment, and arrives at the inevitable conclusion that there was but one public meeting in Charlotte in May, 1775, and that the Resolves of May 31 are the published expression of that meeting.

Now for the sequel. A bill was introduced at the recent session of the North Carolina Legislature to give the county boards of education authority to purchase this history of North Carolina by Capt. Ashe for the rural school libraries, if they saw fit. The bill, at best, was a mere enabling act. It passed the Senate. It was referred to the House Committee on Education. There, the Speaker of the House, who happens to be a Descendant, appeared against it, and was beaten. When it came up on its passage it was opposed by the Speaker, who left his gavel to lobby, and by the Representatives from Mecklenburg. The merits of the book were not discussed. The fitness of Capt. Ashe for his task was not considered. The need of a State history was not thought of. These things availed nothing when placed in the balance against his rejection of this hoary myth. The opponents of the bill did not think argument necessary. Their speeches were directed to showing what would follow in the wake of this bill: The date, May 20, is on the State flag and on the State seal; a monument has been erected in Charlotte to commemorate this event; the children have been taught this date, and, as one member put it, its authenticity "has been established by the Legislature already as thoroughly as the Legislature can establish anything." Then why not leave good enough alone without questioning its correctness? This impassioned appeal to sustain the 20th, regardless of the historical arguments against it, swept the members off their feet, and the bill was defeated by 56 to 39. Verily in the North Carolina historical world "the sun do move." STEPHEN B. WEEKS.

Greenboro, N. C., March 23.

THE PRONUNCIATION OF LATIN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Prof. A. W. Anthony, in your issue of March 18, asks, "Why perpetuate longer the foreign method if it does not give the student acquaintance with a spoken language?" The anecdote which so interestingly describes the inability of Mr. Anthony and a German student to converse in Latin simply goes to prove the necessity of adopting a uniform standard throughout the world. If anecdotes be argument, I know a certain Harvard man who was able pleasantly to spend a long afternoon in an Italian train talking Latin, with a native priest. They had no other language in common, and the vast disparity of their native dialects did not prevent the one from comprehending the other, thanks to the American's training in the Roman pronunciation.

Professor Anthony complains further that the Roman pronunciation increases the difficulty of learning the language. It would be otiose here to repeat all the arguments in favor of the Roman pronunciation; one is decisive—that on any other plan we cannot form the faintest idea of the melody and the power of Latin and Greek prose, of the beauty of the poetry of Homer, Sophocles, Catullus, Virgil. Why is it that so many forget that the letters of our alphabets, ancient or modern, do in all sincerity stand for sounds, are but symbols of the reality and not the reality itself, which is oral? It would be just as absurd for us to attempt to superimpose our sounds upon the symbols of Virgil as it would be for a German, untrained in English speech, to judge the music of Swinburne by his own mangled and guttural travesty of it. The increased ease that Mr. Anthony asserts would follow in the case of a return to the old "English" system would in reality be that ancient enemy of human progress, the ease consequent upon low ideals and still lower attainments.

But logic deserves our respect, wherever we find it, and I would be the last to deny that there are both logic and courage in Mr. Anthony's position, in spite of the fact that his premises and his conclusions are equally untenable. His logic and his courage are both proved by his writing such a delicious *reductio ad absurdum* of the methods which we employ for the ancient languages in the majority of our American schools. R. K. HACK.

Williams College, March 22.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I confess my surprise that your correspondent of March 9 speaks of the now

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generally adopted pronunciation of Latin as "having naught but a worn-out theory to commend it." It has always seemed to me that our evidence upon this matter, descending from antiquity itself, is remarkably full and convincing, so much so that there is here comparatively little difference of opinion among scholars, which is more than can be said of their views on some other branches of classical philology.

I could tell your correspondent another story, as a counter-blast to his, of an acquaintance of mine, who was able successfully to communicate in spoken Latin with the authorities of the Vatican Library, thanks to his having been trained in the Roman method of pronunciation; but I wish to pass to something more important. Your correspondent appears to argue that, because a student pronounces "vidi" as "wee-dee," he will not be likely to recognize its connection with such a word as "evident." My observation, however, is this, that where the English method of pronunciation is nominally employed, no attempt is ever made to *read Latin* at all (as, indeed, why should there be?), and consequently a student's ideas of derivation come to him visually, not vocally. Now, if he employs the Roman method, he gets his derivation visually just as under the other system, and by reading aloud—a process upon which classical teachers are laying increasing stress—he gets at least a fair approximation to Latin as it sounded in its imperial days, gets some real impression of the sonorous Ciceronian eloquence as it rang in a Roman's ears, some idea of the "stateliest measure ever moulded by the lips of man." In short, he gets all that the student under the other system gets, and a great deal more. As one who was brought up under the English method and did not employ the Roman till in his twenties, I desire to record the fact that the classics never meant half as much to me when I merely *translated* them as they have since I have *read* them.

May I be permitted to call John Milton in his capacity as schoolmaster into court:

> For their Studies, First they should begin with the chief and necessary rules of some good Grammar, either that now us'd, or any better: and while this is doing, their speech is to be fashion'd to a distinct and clear pronuntiation, as near as may be to the *Italian*, especially in the Vowels. For we Englishmen, being far Northerly, do not open our mouths in the cold air, wide enough to grace a Southern Tongue; but are observ'd by all other Nations to speak exceeding close and inward: So that to smatter Latine with an English mouth, is as ill a hearing as Law-French.

WILLIAM HARDY ALEXANDER.

University of Alberta, Strathcona, Canada, March 25.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: For one in the curious state of mind evinced by the writer of a communication in the *Nation* of March 18 ("The Pronunciation of the Classics") there may be food for reflection in an entertaining passage in Sir Walter Scott's novel, "The Fortunes of Nigel" (Chapter ix), where young Nigel is presented to King James I, who, after some conversation with him in Latin, addresses his courtiers as follows:

> Ye see, my lords, no bad specimen of our Scottish Latinity, with which language we would all our subjects of England were as well embued as this and other youths of honourable birth, in our auld kingdom; also, we keep the genuine and Roman pronunciation, like other learned nations on the continent, sae that we hold communing with any scholar in the universe, who can but speak the Latin tongue; whereas ye, our learned subjects of England, have introduced into your universities, otherwise most learned, a fashion of pronouncing like unto the "nippit foot and clippit foot" of the bride in the fairy tale, whilk manner of speech (take it not amiss that I be round with you) can be understood by no nation on earth saving yourselves; whereby Latin, *quoad Anglos*, ceaseth to be *communis lingua*, the general dragoman, or interpreter, between all the wise men of the earth.

It is needless to say that our English cousins, after these centuries of insular absurdity, are now engaged in the process of wholesale reform in the pronunciation of the classical languages and are fast conforming to the usage of the rest of the world.

H. H. YEAMES.

Hobart College, Geneva, N. Y., March 22.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: May I be permitted, as a teacher of Latin to long-suffering youth, a word of protest against Prof. A. W. Anthony's new statement, in your issue of March 18, of what to many of us is an old heresy?

The thing seems plausible enough on the surface: Why teach the Latin pronunciation, or, for that matter, any pronunciation at all? Latin is a *dead* language (*absit omen!*); you can't converse in it; even if you could, few would be so lacking in means of entertainment as to listen. Latin cannot even make out as good a case for itself as Greek, which Professor Anthony admits is a spoken and *living* language, forgetting perhaps that modern Greek resembles more nearly the familiar conversation of the ladies of Abdul Hamid's seraglio than the honey-sweet words we so meticulously translate. But all this were as nothing, and little to our purpose, except for three of Professor Anthony's capital charges against the teaching of an approximately historical pronunciation, those, namely, of *Uselessness* in relation to any other study, *Etymological Hindrance*, and *Needless Difficulty*.

Let me employ a *hysteron proteron*, and do away with this last idea. In my own school days, I think it took us about two weeks to master with a certain completeness the chapter on pronunciation, and its application. I have this year in process of instruction boys from twelve to fifteen years of age, who have taken Latin since last September; I tested to-day the least capable pupils in the class, and although I found them something uncertain as to accentuation, they sounded every vowel admirably. Such a condition is not exceptional.

Any task, of course, is a difficulty; but a difficulty such as the present seems to me far from useless. Let us suppose we teach the Roman system of pronunciation. Now, if the boys we teach were French or Germans, the Latin syllable might indeed differ so slightly from its equivalent in the pupil's mother tongue as to call the wisdom of a whole new pronunciation scheme seriously into question. But English-speaking boys are accustomed to a far different sounding of letters, especially of vowels; the soft *a* is infrequent, the *e* as in *ego* does not exist at all, and the *i* as in *sine* occurs only in words of foreign derivation. Now what is more, these boys, if they are to learn any foreign language at all, must first have grasped these rudimentary differences of pronunciation; must find them thoroughly familiar. Why throw on the German class a burden the Latin class has always found so light?

Professor Anthony further insists that an historical pronunciation tends to obscure etymological derivatives and cognates. Admitted, to a certain extent. But how can we show the much more fundamental relation of certain words, as for instance, *vadum* and *wade*, if we pronounce the *v* with Anglo-Saxon insularity? And as for the funny sounds, the boys soon forget all that.

There remains, however, a stronger reason than any of Professor Anthony's for the English pronunciation, namely, the æsthetic. We all despise our new theories just a little, and we confess to a desire for the linguistic fleshpots of days gone by. I remember hearing Prof. Barrett Wendell read in Latin St. Matthew's account of the Nativity, commenting as he did so on the absurdity of reading one's Latin in any other way except "as Shakespeare read his." Need I point out that Shakespeare must have pronounced words in *-tion* much more nearly the classical way than the modern? And how are we to rhyme *heath* with *Macbeth*, unless we broaden it out to the Irishman's *hayth*, which is, by the way, a pronunciation historically more true, if less elegant, than our own?

C. H. DICKERMAN.

Fishkill-on-Hudson, March 19.

ANIMALS ON THE GALLOWS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Referring to Dr. Furness's interesting letter (*Nation*, March 4, p. 217) concerning the English custom of hanging wolves on gallows, allow me to draw the attention of antiquarians to a most singular Greek bronze recently described and published by M. Staïs, "Marbres et bronzes du Musée d'Athènes," 1907, p. 266. It represents, according to M. Staïs, a fox hanged on the stem of a tree, somewhat in the attitude which Greek art gives to Marsyas hanged by order of Apollo. The *provenance*, stated with a query, is "Arcadie, au sanctuaire de Pan." Now, a wolf-god is well known to have been honored in Arcadia, and what M. Staïs calls a fox may—as far as we can judge from the paltry half-tone engraving—be a wolf. No folklorist need be surprised at finding the image of a slain wolf in the sanctuary of a wolf-god. But I will abstain from any hypothesis; the first thing to do, before even discussing the question, would be to procure a good and large photograph of that queer bronze. Fox or wolf, the animal represented is hanging on gallows, and may thus serve as an illustration to the passages adduced by Dr. Furness.

SALOMON REINACH.

Saint Germain, March 16.

THE WORK OF THE COUNTRY SCHOOL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It would be difficult at this moment to specify all the causes that go to make up the present demand for better education in the country districts, to which

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you refer in your editorial of March 18; but at least two causes stand forth in plain sight. One is the demand on the part of the farming community for better education, and the other is the larger supply of available candidates for the position of country teacher.

The growing complexity and specialization of modern life has reached even the farmer; he sees about him the beneficial results of intelligence, training, and industry applied scientifically to farming. Undoubtedly he has seen this for many years, but during the last decade or so he has become prosperous, and is now in a position to make effective such desires. He has subdued the wild forces of nature, he has erected his barns, he has stocked his place with valuable animals, he has bought improved machinery, and he is now studying the problem of better education for his children. Hence the widespread call for better country schools.

On the other hand, the old days have passed forever in this country when there were abundant opportunities lying open for any young man of energy, but without previous training, to make a comfortable fortune in a few years. The once abundant possibilities of rapid advancement from section hand to president, from errand boy to the head of the firm are now mere reminiscences. There has set in a sort of reaction, and occupations once scorned as slow and ill-paid are now carefully considered by young men starting in life. Schoolmastering, which fifty years ago was merely a stepping stone for the ambitious and courageous, is at the present time showing signs of being at least a respectable trade in which any physically healthy and mentally well-balanced man may gain a decent livelihood. But the teacher had to wait till the barns were all built, the Herefords and Percherons purchased, and the reaper and sulky plough installed. His turn for consideration has now come.

Probably the agricultural schools and experiment stations have contributed largely to this happy result. The farmer who held the plough or wielded the scythe in midsummer for more hours than the sun shone, begrudged every dollar paid to his hired man whose chief asset, after all, was brute strength and endurance; the less strength and endurance, the less valuable. This farmer was loath to pay money to any man who did not work with his two hands in the fields. Naturally religious, he starved the preacher; naturally fond of his children, he sought the cheapest teacher possible; a physically incapacitated man or an immature girl would do. But along came the graduate of the agricultural college or the expert from the experiment station, and showed the farmer how to make a field, which he was unable to utilize, blossom with profitable crops; how to get cream from a good Brown Swiss cow, or what prices a good Clydesdale horse would fetch. Half a mile down the road was a young fellow who had been to school and had been trained for agricultural business. The land was of the same quality, but acre for acre, cow for cow, hog for hog, sheep for sheep, the young fellow, trained in the schools, secured bigger prices; lived in better style, and stood higher in the community. All this was the result of training and education. The farmer began to respect the man that taught his successful competitor; the profession of school teaching began to look up.

It remains to be seen what direction this new movement will take; it may prove a curse and it may turn out a blessing. If the aim of every good school is to fit the young for life work, the country school should devote its energies chiefly towards natural, scientific, and agricultural subjects. Up to the present, the chief fault of the American schools has been that they have turned out young men and women who instinctively, as the result of such training, sought clerical jobs in large cities. It would be a great blessing if country children were systematically taught to despise such occupations; and it would be money well spent if the State would pay the expenses of a committee of mothers from every farming community who should visit large cities and see how young women exist who hold jobs in department and similar stores, and have to live on perhaps three dollars a week.

E. L. C. Morse.

Chicago, March 28.

THE SOUTH AND THE NEGRO.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: We do not study the South enough by leisurely visits off the beaten track, away from the "Florida Special" and the tourist routes, from which nothing of much value can ever be learned. Our war prejudices, the old distortion and blindness, are still overwhelming us, although we boast sometimes that we have shaken them off. Of what avail is it to have conquered the South if we enter not into possession of that charming people and their beautiful country?

I say this to myself every winter as, returning from the quail and snipe regions, I add new experiences of appreciation. I stopped over this time at Union Springs in Alabama, merely a cotton town far removed from tourist lines. It is situated, with wide, well-shaded streets, on a good-sized hill, or ridge, with extensive views over a very curious region, a sort of mottled country of pine forests and red-soiled cotton fields—a paradise for sportsmen and followers of the cunning quail, with high-bred dogs wandering about the streets. I sat on the steps of the courthouse with my own dog, and talked with one of the judges.

The field sports and their broadening genial influence are perhaps the best equipment for the serious task of these Southern judges, the most serious task that perhaps has ever been given to their race. Union Springs is in the midst of the black belt, and the negroes outnumber the whites ten to one. The white men seemed to me like a band of brothers, united, disciplined, trained through generations, like jovial soldiers, to hold down the black race. Their Southern qualities, that extreme and ready sociability, that frank directness, seemed the more intensified because they were so desperately united to protect Anglo-Saxon decency and order from being overwhelmed by Africa.

The blacks, judging from those I saw, may have been descended from the last slaves imported just before the trade was stopped. They seemed very close to Africa. One of the young men I went to see is a college graduate, and a magistrate, who seems to spend a large part of his time trying negroes for all sorts of misdemeanors. I watched another young man in an office adjoining the court house, with negro after negro, male and female, coming before him; they were waiting in groups before the door, and he seemed to be lecturing and explaining to them much of the time. These negroes are not the selected ones that we know, but the great mass of the 10,000,000; the 9,900,000 of the 10,000,000. It will take a long time to lecture and explain Anglo-Saxon ideas into the black mass. It will never be done in any time that can be estimated; and yet the Southerner goes on with it day after day, with the greatest patience and good temper; he has been going on with it in that way for generations, and he will go on with it to the end of time, while we theorize and talk about it in the North.

I wonder where it will all end. Will the Southerner continue to hold down with one delicately moulded, but iron hand, while he explains and explains and shows great kindness with the other hand; and meantime the years and decades pass, and in fifty years the present ten millions of negroes have grown to twenty millions, and in another fifty years to forty millions, and so on until at last there is a small white population, a desperately united, high-strung band of brothers, holding down an enormous black mass just as in India about one hundred thousand Englishmen hold down three hundred millions of brown Asiatics. If that day ever comes I feel as if there should be painted somewhere in the universe the scene I saw in the court house; the slim young Southerner of race-horse build, all nerve and sensation, the Anglo-Saxon type of the Southern sun, explaining to black man after black man; and he kept on explaining and explaining through the ages until the black man overwhelmed him with numbers.

Sydney G. Fisher.

Philadelphia, March 10.

LINCOLN AND THE NEGRO.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A correspondent in your issue of March 18 thinks that I have done "both Lincoln and the *Nation*" an injustice in my comments on Lincoln's attitude toward the negro. Now as to your correspondent's assumption that Lincoln's views might "have undergone a change" in the light of subsequent developments, it may be replied that in 1862, four years later than the time when he expressed the opinion of my former quotation, Lincoln in an address to a deputation of colored men, said:

> Even when you cease to be slaves, you are yet far removed from being placed on an equality with the white race. . . . The aspiration of men is to enjoy equality with the best when free, but on this broad continent not a single man of your race is made the equal of a single man of ours. Go where you are treated the best, and the ban is still upon you. I do not propose to discuss this, but to present it as a fact with which we have to deal.

If, in the four intervening years, Lincoln's views had materially changed, could he have had a more fitting opportunity to say so than this? On the contrary, he refuses to discuss the question.

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The "notion of negro citizenship" had dawned upon Lincoln in 1864 when he wrote to Governor Hahn:

Now you are about to have a convention, which, among other things, will probably define the elective franchise. I barely suggest for your private consideration, whether some of the colored people may not be let in—as, for instance, the very intelligent, and especially those who have fought gallantly in our ranks.

If Lincoln had lived through the years of Reconstruction, not as he would have made it, but as it really was, can we suppose that that pitiful spectacle would have led him to bestow the franchise, not, as he says, on the "very intelligent" negroes, but, as the extremists would almost seem to require, on every colored man because of his color and despite his unfitness?

The negro problem is not as your correspondent would have it:

Shall a man physically, intellectually, and morally the equal of other men be denied equal treatment because his skin is black, or because his ancestors had been oppressed?

On the contrary, Lincoln's expressed opinion, and the opinion which seems constantly gaining adherents through all parts of our country, is that the man whose skin is black—as a race—is not physically, intellectually, or morally the equal of the man whose skin is white.

L. M. Passano.

Boston, March 20.

THE CONCENTRATED ESSENCE OF PROTECTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I draw your attention to the fine of $200 imposed upon Mrs. E. J. Lord of Honolulu by the Federal government, for the unthinkable misdemeanor of having travelled from Honolulu to San Francisco on a foreign steamer, the Tenyo Maru, arriving in port February 16, 1909. The trivial explanation offered by the culprit for this misdeed was that the foreign steamer was better than the government-protected American boat, sailing on the same day. The attention of American citizens everywhere should be called to this last crowning triumph of that narrow-minded, tariff-protected, graft-infected, political régime, under which the American consumer has groaned these last twelve years.

E. J. Roberts.

Burlingame, Cal., March 14.

WHO WAS CARDELIUS?

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In a New York office hangs an excellent bit of printing, which reads as follows:

THIS OUR NOBLE ART.

And this our noble art of Printing is the very Foster Mother of all Learning; for though the few had Books before Gutenberg gave us our Art, not until Printing came could Learning, yes and Wisdom also, knock at every man's door.

From the Latin of Cardelius, 1546.

Who was Cardelius? B.

Summit, N. J., March 30.

Notes.

Under the title "Morals in Modern Business," the Yale University Press has about ready a collection of six papers written by Edward D. Page, George W. Alger, Henry Holt, A. Barton Hepburn, Edward W. Bemis, and James McKeen. The aim of the book is to inquire candidly into the conduct of modern business on what may be termed the moral side. In it, many of the questions of right and wrong, which have arisen as a result of the great changes in the commercial world, are considered and answered by men of experience.

The "Memoirs of Mademoiselle George," edited by Paul Cheramy, are to be published in this country next month by the John McBride Co. Mlle. George, who was born in 1787, writes piquantly of Napoleon and the other notables of her day. From the same house is to come "The Revelation to the Monk of Evesham Abbey," rendered into modern English, by Valerian Paget. Its quaint picture of purgatory and paradise has hitherto remained in the obsolete English of 700 years ago.

Gen. Kuropatkin's "Military Memoirs," translated by Capt. A. B. Lindsay, will be brought out almost immediately by E. P. Dutton & Co.

"A Vindication of Warren Hastings," by G. W. Hastings, is to be published by Henry Frowde. The author's object is to prove that "Warren Hastings, the man who made our Indian Empire and preserved it for the Crown, was wholly innocent of the crimes so often and so grievously laid to his charge."

The Clarendon Press is about to issue the first volume of "Scripta Minoa: the Written Documents of Minoan Crete," by Arthur J. Evans. This volume deals specially with the earlier pictographic and hieroglyphic script, but with an introduction giving a general view of the progress of the discoveries, the successive types of script and their relation to one another.

T. N. Foulis of Edinburgh, announces a complete and authorized translation of Nietzsche's works in eighteen volumes under the editorial supervision of Dr. Oscar Levy. "Thoughts Out of Season," "The Birth of Tragedy," "Thus Spake Zarathustra," "Beyond Good and Evil," and "The Future of Our Educational Institutions" will be ready this spring.

In the new series of the Publications of the Modern Language Association No. 1 of Vol. XVII, just issued, contains six contributions. J. P. Wickersham Crawford presents the text of a Spanish farce of the sixteenth century from a manuscript of the Biblioteca Nacional of Madrid; Alfred E. Richards discusses "The English Wagner Book of 1594"; William Guild Howard, "Ut Pictura Poesis," noticed in the *Nation* of March 25; Robert K. Root, "Chaucer's Legend of Medea"; John W. Cunliffe, "Browning and the Marathon Race"; and Percy W. Long, "The Purport of Lyly's 'Endimion'." Mr. Long concludes that the idea of a personal allegory in "Endimion" is "an assumption made without evidence."

Part 1 of Volume II of *Orkney and Shetland Miscellany*, January, 1909, offers among other things a study in the "Township and Surnames" of the isles by J. Storer Clouston. Mr. Clouston finds that, while many township names have given rise to family names, a larger number of family names have not thus originated, and that few of the large townships are associated with names. On the other hand, the small townships, being little more than single farms, frequently gave surnames to men who were merely tenants. Thus, John Ismond's son, who became a tenant at Winksetter in Harray, adopted the name John Winksetter in the following century. The author suggests the problem: whether the origin of the townships is as Norse as their names, or whether they were once Pictish settlements. It may be noted that there are in this country five Orkney and Shetland societies, one in Boston, one in Buffalo, two in Chicago, and one in Portland, Ore.

"Naval Warfare," by Baron Curt von Maltzahn, retired vice-admiral in the German Navy, is a well printed translation from the original German (Longmans, Green & Co.). The author was for some years professor of strategy and tactics at the Naval Academy in Kiel, and later became its head. He is therefore especially competent to treat naval warfare from the German point of view, and what he says is of interest, in presenting the case of those who urge a great navy as necessary to a nation which is largely engaged in commerce. As might have been expected, he attributes England's industrial supremacy to her sea power, and urges that Germany should aim at equality, if not preponderance, upon the ocean:

The economic dependence of the Continent on England which existed at the beginning of the last century exists no longer today; it has become transformed into a military dependency. This is because the Continental States are more vulnerable than they were, since they have more to fear from naval warfare, which is the chief weapon in England's hands. As England's rivals, therefore, they must provide themselves with such a fleet equipment as will correspond with their share in maritime commerce.

The motives underlying our Navy Bill characterize such a defensive fleet in these words: "Germany must have a war fleet of such strength that any war in which she were to be engaged would be so dangerous to her adversary—even were that adversary the strongest of all at sea—that his position as a great Power would be called in question."

We can only regard this universal battleship mania as a disease which bids fair to wreck more than one people before it shall have run its course. For the individual who is a prey to hallucinations the trained expert is at hand to minister, but nations in the grip of these terrors are without a much needed international mental alienist, and are deaf to all who strive to calm their fears. When these war scares and bugaboos become recognized as figments of the imagination and treated as maladies, this little book will find its true place, for it is a symptom rather than a treatise.

"New Light on Ancient Egypt" (D. Appleton & Co.) is the title of a translation of a series of essays by Gaston Maspero, director-general of the Service des Antiquités and director of the Museum in Cairo. The essays are the result of some fifteen years of work in popularizing the

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results of Egyptological studies by the author and others. The arrangement of the material seems to be rather haphazard, and no plan of sequence is discernible. Each new chapter takes the reader into a new field, quite without reference to that which precedes or follows. Some of the essays are comparatively recent, while others were penned as much as ten years ago, possibly earlier. In the interval the progress of excavation has changed the appearance of things, but corresponding changes have not been made in the descriptive text. One would never know, for instance, that the temple of Denderah had been dug out and much improved for the purposes of the tourist. There is also another point upon which criticism may be offered, in spite of the note which the author has prepared on the subject—the method of transliterating native names. The usage of English scholars is too well fixed to be superseded by the French, particularly when there is so great a difference in the value of the symbols in the two alphabets. In an English translation it would seem wiser to abandon the French and adhere to the English forms, particularly when the French presents such monstrosities as Hatshopsouitou, Maiherpiriou, Montouhikhopshouf, Ouaouaitou, and Toutanonkhamanou. About the value of the book for the fuller appreciation and comprehension of many phases of Egyptian archæology, history, art, literature, religion, and magic, there cannot be two opinions. If there is a more capable or versatile writer on these subjects it would be hard to name him. The richness of the contents cannot be catalogued here: the interested reader must be referred to the book itself. The translation from the French by Elizabeth Lee has been made exceedingly well, and one is scarcely conscious of reading a version from another language except in the case of words unnecessarily near to the original: "hypogeum" is no better than "tomb"; "syringe" is mistakenly used for "syrinx"; "timbrel" for "sistrum"; "tar" for "bitumen"; "pharmacy" for "pharmacopœia," "kohol" for "kohl." But these are slight defects which do not really detract seriously from the value of a book that deserves a place on the shelves of those who are interested in things Egyptian and who desire to extend the field and content of their knowledge.

H. Stuart Jones's brief volume, "The Roman Empire," in the Story of the Nations Series (G. P. Putnam's Sons), is a sound and sensible summary of Imperial history from Augustus to Romulus Augustulus. Hitherto, those who have wanted a single volume on this period have been obliged to content themselves with the mediocre and antiquated manual of Dean Merivale, and the contrast between the two books makes plain the progress of historical scholarship in the course of a generation. Instead of the traditional paraphrase of the ancient historians, essentially external in character, and dealing mainly with military exploits and palace intrigues, we now have an account which looks at the empire as a whole, and seeks to understand it in the light of the new evidence derived from inscriptions and papyri, and a broader knowledge of ancient literature and art. Matters dynastic and military still occupy a good deal of space, probably more than they will retain a generation hence, but emphasis is placed rather upon such topics as the development of the Imperial bureaucracy, the growth of cosmopolitanism, and the rise and spread of new religions. The conventional characterizations of the Emperors are also revised. The "only man of genius" among them was Hadrian; the administration of Marcus Aurelius "shows little positive achievement"; and the Claudian Cæsars, in accordance with the tendency of recent historians, are viewed more favorably than in the pages of Tacitus, whom Mr. Jones rightly regards as "a great artist and a great psychologist," but "not amongst the greatest of historians." The volume has a number of excellent illustrations, mostly from photographs of monuments.

Paul Maria Baumgarten's inquiry into the method and merit of "Henry Charles Lea's Historical Writings" (New York: J. F. Wagner) will prove a disappointment to those who would welcome a comprehensive and dispassionate criticism of Mr. Lea's books from a competent Catholic scholar. Monsignor Baumgarten has established his standing as an historical investigator by important studies in ecclesiastical institutions, and is able to print unpublished documents from the Vatican archives in support of certain of his statements, but he lacks the judicial spirit and has not the enormous and varied learning necessary to one who would meet the American historian on his own ground. It is true that he recognizes his opponent's industry, "endurance, and undisputed results"; and a Catholic is entirely within his rights in attacking the point of view from which Mr. Lea approaches the mediæval Church, but one who possesses Monsignor Baumgarten's familiarity with the fiscal methods of the Popes of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries should be the last to sneer at "Lea's habit, due to long commercial occupation, to regard everything in the light of dollars and cents." It is entirely proper to point out errors of fact and interpretation and to use the new materials brought to light by such Catholic scholars as Finke and Göller, but no one is justified in making charges of falsification without giving full and specific evidence. Like most apologists for the Spanish Inquisition, Monsignor Baumgarten seeks to make the issue one of race rather than of religion, and he tries to strengthen his case by some bitter pages on racial discrimination and lynch law in the United States. An impartial critic of Mr. Lea as an historian would also have tested his work in the less controversial field of his "Superstition and Force," instead of dismissing that remarkable book in a single sentence as "loosely connected gleanings." Monsignor Baumgarten's brochure was put together from a series of badly composed articles in the *Theologische Revue;* and the translator's imperfect knowledge of English makes the English version harder reading than the original.

The Rev. J. C. Morrice's "Manual of Welsh Literature" (Bangor, Great Britain: Jarvis & Foster) is intended to meet the wants of those who desire acquaintance with the subject, but lack time and opportunity to study it in detail. In the space of some two hundred pages he discusses the chief bards and prose writers of Wales from the sixth to the eighteenth century. It is fair to say that in some respects he does not satisfy us. His treatment of the early period is sketchy, even in a work of this size, and the bards of the twelfth century, a particularly interesting group, might well have received more notice. We should have expected him to write of, *e. g.,* the poems of Llywarch Hên in a more critical spirit, and he would certainly have done better to omit such derivations as that of Aneurin from Honorinus. Even so we have no hesitation in recommending his book. It contains much valuable information, and its style is picturesque enough to hold the attention of its readers, and to stimulate them to further research.

A new quarterly devoted to German literature, *Deutsches Schrifttum,* has been begun by Prof. Adolph Bartels of Weimar.

The *Germanisch-romanische Monatsschrift,* a philological monthly, recently begun under the editorship of Dr. Heinrich Schröder of Kiel, in conjunction with Profs. F. Holthausen, W. Meyer-Lübke, V. Michels, and W. Streitberg (Heidelberg: C. Winters Buchhandlung), is intended to meet the wants of advanced students of Germanics, English, and the Romance languages and literatures. Not so much detail of research as critical and instructive discussion of linguistics, poetry, metre, phonetics, dialects, drama, art, ethnology, palæography, etc., is to be presented by the leading scholars in the field.

A new series, Neue Märchenbücher (Berlin: Wedekind & Co.), begins auspiciously with the "Märchenfäden" of Hildegard Neuffer-Slavenhagen, an interesting collection, written by a mother for her children. The work is finely illustrated by Oskar Herrfurth.

The "Literarischer Ratgeber 1909," edited by Ferdinand Avenarius, attempts to pass on the latest products of the literary market, entirely independently of the interests of the book trade. It is the joint product of some fifty specialists, all coöperating under the auspices of the Dürerbund, an association representing about one hundred and fifty societies, with a total membership of more than two hundred thousand (Munich: G. D. W. Callwey).

"Reise eines jungen Deutschen in Frankreich und England im Jahre 1815" (Leipzig: Georg Wigand), edited by Georg Brand, is a description of the journey of a young Saxon representing the textile interests of his country, which had attained to a remarkably flourishing condition in consequence of the exclusion of British goods from the Continent by Napoleon. The journey is made to the manufacturing districts of southern France, and after the return of Napoleon from Elba, to England. The traveller, August Brückner, a young man of eighteen from Mylau, is a keen observer and business man, whose vivid account treats more of the industrial matters of his times than of the political.

The sketch of Theodor Mommsen published shortly after his death by his pupil and close friend, Ludo Moritz Hartmann, appears now as a complete biography (Gotha: F. A. Perthes). The original outline sketch came out in "Bettelheims Biographisches Jahrbuch." Hartmann depicts Mommsen not only as a scholar, but also as a prominent figure in the public affairs of Germany. The volume includes, among other

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things, a number of Mommsen's political essays.

Critical appreciations of Annette von Droste-Hülshoff, acknowledged the greatest woman poet of Germany, never fail to refer to her indebtedness to English poetry, and especially to Byron. The gifted woman has been made the subject of a new study by Dr. Bertha Badt, entitled "Annette von Droste-Hülshoff: Ihre dichterische Entwicklung und ihr Verhältniss zur englischen Literatur." It forms the seventh volume in the new series of the Breslauer Beiträge zur Literaturgeschichte, edited by Prof. Dr. Max Koch and Gregor Sarrazin (Leipzig: Quelle & Meyer).

J. C. B. Mohr of Tübingen announces as forthcoming a "Handbuch der Kirchengeschichte" in two volumes, edited by Prof. Gustav Krüger of the University of Giessen. The purpose is chiefly to furnish students a thoroughly modern and up-to-date work of reference. The editor will himself write the general introduction and the chronological and statistical tables; Dr. Edwin Preuschen, in conjunction with Professor Krüger, treats the early period; Prof. Gerhard Ficker of Kiel, the middle ages; Dr. Heinrich Hermelink of Leipzig, the Reformation and Counter-Reformation; and Dr. Horst Stephan of Marburg, the modern period. The first volume is promised for the current year.

The fourth part of the "Quellen und Darstellungen aus der Geschichte der Reformation," edited by Dr. Georg Berbig (Leipzig: Heinsius Nachfolger), has appeared with the special title "Leben und Wirken des Tendenzdramatikers der Reformationszeit Thomas Naogeorgus," by Dr. Leonard Theobald. This work deals only with the second part of the career of this strange genius; the first, in shorter form, appeared as a doctoral dissertation some months ago. This learned humanist and neo-Latin tragedy writer, whose original name was Kirchmeyer, is best known through his polemical "Regnum Papisticum" of 1553.

Leading critical problems in connection with the last days of Jesus are made the subject of a close investigation by Johannes Frey, in "Die Probleme der Leidensgeschichte Jesu: Beiträge zur Kritik der Evangelien," Teil I (Leipzig: Deichert Nachfolger). This part deals with the concluding chapter of Mark, the decree of the Sanhedrin to put Jesus to death, the readings of the Slavic text of Josephus, the betrayal by Judas, and the anointing in Bethany. The Slavic Josephus text contains unique readings on the Pilate story. The author is objective, and nowhere shows any prejudice in favor of gospel harmony or apologetics. He openly recognizes difficulties and contradictions wherever they are found.

It is no exaggeration to say that Dr. Valfrid Palmgren's "Bibliotek och folkuppfostran" (Stockholm: Norstedt & Söner) is the most complete account of the work of the public libraries of America that exists to-day. The author, who is assistant in the Royal Library in Stockholm, and the only woman in the library service of Sweden, was sent to this country by the Swedish government to study and report on the American public libraries. After a general introduction, and an account of library buildings, in which she touches on the most salient points in library development, the author turns to what is the main purpose of the book, a detailed description of the activities of public libraries. The regulations for lending, catalogues, and open shelves, children's departments, coöperation between the library and the schools, home and travelling libraries, State commissions, and library training, are described in a lively, lucid style, with due emphasis always on the important things.

Several valuable contributions to the study of the foreign factor in the American population have recently appeared. In the February, 1909, issue of *Nordmands forbundet* (Federation of Norsemen), the Rev. O. Olafsen of Ullensvang, Norway, traces the emigration to America from the province of Hardanger, Norway, from the beginning of the movement there in 1836, when eighteen persons left, down to the present time. From the records of three parishes he gives the total number for each year, and for the earlier period the names, ages, and destinations in America of the immigrants. The article forms a significant chapter in our pioneer history. Similar investigations for other provinces in the Scandinavian North and for other European countries would be of historical value. A contribution to the study of the Norwegian element in the State of Wisconsin has recently been issued by H. L. Skavlem of Janesville, Wis., under the title: "Scandinavians in the Early Days of Rock County." It gives an account of the settling of that county by Norwegians in 1838-1840, with biographical sketches of the earliest settlers.

Vol. XIX of the *Revista delle Biblioteche* (Guido Biagi of the Laurentian Library, Florence, editor) contains the first of a series of bibliographical bulletins intended as guides in the selection of new books for the Italian sections of foreign libraries. This list consists of 123 entries of titles of books of fiction and of reading books for children, each followed by a short note in English on its character and contents.

The Conference for Education in the South will be held at Atlanta April 14-16.

In Chicago on February 10 a joint session was held of the Department of Universities and Colleges, Department of Theological Seminaries, and Department of Churches and Pastors of the Religious Education Association, with the Interdenominational Conference of Church and Guild Workers in State Universities. The following resolution was adopted:

That a Commission of Twelve be appointed, representing endowed institutions of advanced education as well as State universities, for the purpose of formulating an ideal or suggestive course of collegiate study preparatory to a course in a theological seminary.

The commission, which was appointed last week, is constituted as follows: Dean Shailer Mathews, University of Chicago, chairman; Prof. George A. Coe, Northwestern; President Ozora Davis, Chicago Theological Seminary; President R. A. Falconer, University of Toronto; President W. H. P. Faunce, Brown; President Emory W. Hunt, Denison; President Edmund J. James, University of Illinois; Prof. Francis W. Kelsey, University of Michigan; President Henry C. King, Oberlin; President William Douglas Mackenzie, Hartford Theological Seminary; President George B. Stewart, Auburn Theological Seminary; Chancellor Frank Strong, University of Kansas. It is also announced that the papers presented at Chicago will be published.

Prof. Bliss Perry, editor of the *Atlantic Monthly*, has been appointed Hyde lecturer at the University of Paris for the academic year 1909-10. Professor Perry will discuss American institutions, but the exact nature of his subject is not yet announced.

James Hulme Canfield, librarian of Columbia University, died in this city March 29, at the age of sixty-two. He was born in Delaware, Ohio, was graduated from Williams, and after practising law for a few years, became professor of history in the State University of Kansas. He was then successively chancellor of the University of Nebraska, president of Ohio State University, and (since 1899) librarian of Columbia. He had also been president of the Kansas State Teachers' Association, the Nebraska State Teachers' Association, and the National Educational Association. His books are "Taxation" (1883), "A History of Kansas" (1884), "Local Government in Kansas" (1889), and "The College Student and His Problems" (1902).

Charles Burlingame Waite, territorial judge in Utah during the turbulent times with the Mormons, and an author and linguist, died in Chicago March 26, at the age of eighty-five. He was the author of "A History of the Christian Religion to the Year A. D. 200," which has been translated into French, German, and Norwegian. Among other books written by him are "A Conspiracy Against the Republic," "Herbert Spencer and His Critics," and "The Comparative Study of Ten Languages."

The Rev. James Eleazer Gilbert, a Methodist Episcopal minister and secretary of the American Society for Religious Education, died at Washington March 26, at the age of sixty-nine. He had been on the staff of the Buffalo *Christian Advocate* and the *Sunday School Standard*, and he edited the *Journal of Religious Education*. His books are: "Biblical Interpretation," "Biblical History," "Life of Christ," "Sacred Pedagogy," "Man's Spiritual Nature," "Methods of Bible Study," "Preparation for Church Membership," "Religious Experience," "The Spiritual Life," "Biblical Doctrine," and "American Methodism."

The Rev. John Crowell died at East Orange, N. J., March 29, in his ninety-fifth year. He was born in Philadelphia, was graduated from Princeton in the class of 1834, studied at Princeton Theological Seminary, and for nearly fifty years was active in the ministry. He contributed about four hundred articles to the predecessor of the present "International Encyclopædia," and published also "Republics—Popular Government an Appointment of God" (1871), and "Christ in All the Scriptures."

The death of Gustaf af Geijerstam at the comparatively early age of fifty-one removes a figure conspicuous in Swedish letters for more than a quarter of a century. During the eighties he was one of the leaders of the realistic movement, and wrote some works that have retained their hold on the reading public ever since, notably two or three volumes treating of the life of farmers, fishermen, and city laborers. About the middle of the nineties he turned

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to more psychological problems, and produced two books of a decidedly mystical character. In the years preceding his death he turned to the family novel, which he handled with much success. He was also a dramatic writer of no mean capacity.

LIGHT ON AMERICAN HISTORY.

Wisconsin: The Americanization of a French Settlement. By Reuben Gold Thwaites. [American Commonwealth Series.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Co. $1.25 net.

When Sir Charles Lyell took back, bit by bit, in successive editions of his "Principles of Geology," statements he had originally made, until his latest work was in sharp contrast with his first, he was commended for his courage and candor. To Dr. Thwaites may be given like praise, in the field of history: he admits that some of his earlier conclusions in regard to the European occupation of the West were not well-based, and careless of a reputation for consistency, tears down what he once laboriously built. Whether he retains or rejects, Dr. Thwaites is likely in his field to go unchallenged; for he is a veteran quite too practical and well-equipped to be lightly encountered.

Dr. Thwaites takes for his second title "The Americanization of a French Settlement." The hold of the French upon Wisconsin was long-continued. Beginning in the last third of the seventeenth century, it endured nearly until the beginning of the nineteenth, for our author esteems as negligible the influence of the British during the brief time they were nominally dominant. The French made the region solely a hunting-ground. Scattered in handfuls along the valleys of the Fox and Wisconsin from Green Bay to Prairie du Chien, the great waterway from the St. Lawrence Valley to the Mississippi, they drove the fur trade, neglecting agriculture; indeed, they looked askance upon the farmer, for this vast wilderness they wished to preserve and not reclaim. Our author notes the injury done through this policy to the Indians. Whereas they were to some extent cultivators, skilful in basketry, weaving, pottery, and other simple arts, they found it easier to buy from the white traders what they had once manufactured, and thus became exclusively hunters—a step backward from civilization. Our author's tenderness for the Indian is shown in his picture of Black Hawk, who, in 1832, made the last stand for his tribe. Eleazer Williams, the once famous hero of the romance "Have We a Bourbon among us?" is regarded by Dr. Thwaites as a self-seeking impostor. Perhaps this is the last word, but we incline to a kinder judgment. The stately quarter-breed, with his fine Bourbon profile, made a deep impression upon the writer of this notice when a boy in his father's house. Recalling this, we surmise that to a large extent Williams was under an illusion, and not altogether dishonest in the belief that in his veins was the blood of the kings of France. Dr. Thwaites omits to mention that Eleazer was probably a descendant of the Rev. John Williams of Deerfield, Mass., "The Redeemed Captive," carried to Canada in 1704, with his family; his child, or grandchild, married an Indian and was the adventurer's parent.

The French having passed, the Anglo-Saxon came, destined, however, to exercise only a transient and restrained influence; for Americanization meant for Wisconsin not so much a coming in of New Yorkers and New Englanders, as immigrants from beyond sea, German and Scandinavian. Coeval with the establishment of statehood in Wisconsin was the revolution of 1848 and its sequels, during which unrest north and central Europe poured out most abundantly their discontented children. For some years Wisconsin was their goal, its area so filling that at one time no other State contained so large or so varied a foreign element, an influx in no way detrimental. During the civil war the service rendered by Wisconsin soldiers was prompt, constant, and brilliant, an efficiency due in part to the many officers and men who were trained in European fields. Dr. Thwaites quotes Sherman as saying that a Wisconsin regiment was as good as a brigade of other troops. The excellence of the population is conspicuous in the field of education. A particular interest is felt in public libraries; schools, primary and secondary, are well-organized and sustained; while the university, which crowns the system, is a beacon-light throughout the country. In general, among our commonwealths perhaps we can find nowhere better than in Wisconsin the assimilation of widely varying stocks into a noble composite under beneficent, overruling American conditions.

Calendar of the Papers of Benjamin Franklin in the Library of the American Philosophical Society. Edited by I. Minis Hays. 5 vols. Philadelphia: Printed for the Society.

These handsome volumes, issued in connection with the celebration of the two hundredth anniversary of the birth of Franklin, constitute a very fit and notable memorial. They open to the student a unique collection of manuscripts. No American of that day had so long a residence in Europe in such responsible positions. Franklin knew Paris and London almost as well as he knew Philadelphia; and his business and official relations on both sides of the water made him conversant with the true centres of action in Colonial Assembly, the French court, and in the British Parliament. His own writings gave one phase of these affairs, and we have now a full and adequate summary of his written sources of information. Dr. Hays has wisely included the Franklin papers in the Library of the University of Pennsylvania; the Library of Congress has issued a calendar of Stevens's Franklin manuscripts. It is hardly possible that any further matter of importance will be found, so that the record is now fairly complete.

Less than one-third of the first volume of the calendar is occupied with the letters of an earlier date than the American Revolution. It is known that the papers of Franklin left in Philadelphia at the beginning of the war were scattered and largely destroyed; what remains was but a small part of the original mass. Yet for some reasons these few relics are of the greatest significance, for they mark the wide reputation of the man and the high connections he had formed. His catholic sympathies brought him into touch with all kinds of persons, from the widow anxious to place her son well in America, to princes wishing to know him and witness his experiments. At home his correspondence ranged from Boston to Savannah, and even to the West Indies; in Europe hardly a country was unrepresented.

His correspondence in the Revolution treats of other matters. It is doubtful if there is any type of adventurer that is not represented many times. What pertained to the legitimate business of his mission, or to the personal and official relations formed in Paris, constituted but a small part of his task. Inventions of all descriptions, war-like and other, were offered, from a diving apparatus, a recipe for making gunpowder explosive or non-explosive at will, to a rapid-firing arm or a system of tactics. Many men were willing to enter the Continental service, but their demands for rank and pay were extravagant. Priests, bakers, farmers, and writers were only too anxious to have their passage paid and to receive a gift of land, while guardians wished to unload their wards. Emigrants of a good quality, officers of a bad, spies seeking access to the American Minister, and released prisoners who deserved some recompense for sufferings endured, all appeared. Every conceivable manufacture, from Bibles to stockings, was tendered. Amid all these appeals and demands, Franklin remained calm and judicious, offering assurance that he was the very man for meeting such an emergency.

After the Revolution he resumed many of his English connections, and remained the centre of attraction for those seeking fortunes in America or asking endorsement for their writings or inventions. His health and his habits of indolence prevented his contin-

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uing such experiments as had gained him reputation, but his interest in science remained, and it is difficult to decide whether in these later years he is more of a politician than a scientist. If he replied to every letter received—and he has often sketched a reply on the letter itself—much of his best correspondence has been lost.

In so extensive a catalogue of unusual names it would be too much to look for perfection; but the compiler has erred in the name of Francis Dana, making it F. M. Dana, and in Derford, which he prints Perford. Some minor slips occur, but none misleading. Dr. Hays is to be congratulated upon the completion of this important work, which is made still more useful by a full index.

CURRENT FICTION.

Araminta. By J. C. Snaith. New York: Moffat, Yard & Co.

The change from the gloom of "Broke of Covenden" to the cream-bun simplicity of this idyllic bit of fooling suggests that the severest of Olympians must occasionally unbend his brows and don the motley, even as Mr. Hichens did in "The Londoners." Mr. Snaith's predilection for the large family of daughters as a reservoir of romantic possibility is once more evidenced by the Rev. Aloysius Perry's well-filled quiver. The eldest shaft, a six-foot human reproduction of a Gainsborough portrait, is discharged in majestic beauty at London society, and goes to its heart with her first introduction of herself: "My name is Araminta, but they call me Goose because I am *rather* a Sil-lay." Her suitors are three—George, Duke of Brancaster, Lord Cheriton, and Jim Lascelles, an impecunious painter, who has known her from infancy and who scruples not to bribe her with pastry to give him sittings, and to enforce silence in regard to the matter before her guardian by a timely kick on the shin. These elemental methods are as successful as they always are—in fiction—and Araminta's simple and loyal heart passes wholly into the keeping of Jim. After many serio-comic vicissitudes, the heart is followed by the young lady's beautiful but substantial person; and we leave them happy in the Red House at Widdiford, with a comfortable conviction that after she has reared a dozen daughters on strawberries and cream, Goose will still be rather a silly, and at heart the most childish of them all.

The Spell. By William Dana Orcutt. New York: Harper & Bros.

It is unfortunate that the theme of this well-written story is so limited in its appeal. The potent fascination of the history and literature of the Italian renaissance can hardly move those who have not themselves felt the Spell. The story is of a young scholar deeply interested in the art of the humanists, who goes to Florence with his beautiful bride, and there is dominated by the touch of the Past. His companion in research is the intimate friend of his wife, a woman sharing his intellectual interests and as sensitive as himself to the peculiar spell that gives the book its title. The wife, a healthy and normal being, not unnaturally fails to comprehend the entirely mental character of the bond between her husband and her friend, and feels constrained to leave him that her place may be filled by the one with whom he has so much in common. The husband has most salutary difficulty in convincing her that, although Inez is very well as a fellow-worker, he wants no other wife than herself; finally, however, he succeeds, and we leave him humbled in spirit and content to adore the humanities in Helen's very charming person. The descriptions, especially of the Laurentian Library, are redolent of actuality, but the psychology of the principal characters is at times tangled to the point of tedium.

The Kiss of Helen. By Charles Marriott. New York: John Lane Co.

At a crisis in the concerns of Mr. Marriott's hero, Paul Trecarell, he becomes "aware of a subtle change in the atmosphere of public affairs," in London:

> It was not merely that certain old questions—such as female suffrage and municipal enterprise—had suddenly become acute, but there was the curious feeling that the race was entering upon a new stage of consciousness. It was a feeling difficult to express in words, and it seemed to indicate not so much new movements as a larger synthesis of people and ideas—as if the term "animal kingdom" had been widened to include unicorns and hippogriffs. The unlikeliest people were to be found hobnobbing together, and it was beginning to be admitted by quite sober calculators that two and two sometimes made five. . . . These signs, infinitesimal in themselves, pointed in the mass to a readjustment of values; . . . as if it were at last recognized that men and women were more important than institutions.

A feeling not unlike Paul's takes possession of the reader of this clever, inordinately clever, novel. A new envisagement of some of the most serious relations of life is proclaimed, the relation, more particularly, of woman to man and to the world. In the view of Evan Rees, artist, the "genius of womanhood" was something rarer than wifehood or motherhood:

> Protestantism tried to capture it in the idea of marriage, but the genius of womanhood escapes marriage altogether, or dies—you "kill the thing you love" so to speak.

Colonel Pixell's view was a foil to this. With him "hearth and home" formed the only thinkable expression of the idea of woman—an idea which the artist found "too useful." But, curiously enough, one opinion is shared by all the characters in the book, by hero, artist, colonel, affianced bride, elderly spinster. One and all, they agreed in taking the lightest possible view of what they call "an episode" in the life of Joan, the heroine. This episode consisted in her having lived for three years with a man whose wife was in a lunatic asylum. By those others, it was regarded severally as "a blunder that she had come through," something "that no rational person would think twice about," "a dreadful mistake" that "nobody with a spark of feeling would bring up against her now." The lady herself, when it is a question of marrying the hero, whom she professes to love, angrily exclaims "Haven't you any use for us but to marry us or tread us into the gutter?" And marry him she will not. But not, one may be sure, from any scruples as to episodes.

A shining feature of the book is the exceeding freshness and lustre of the conversations. In them, as in narration and in comment, banality has no tiniest part. The writing is a marvel of easy compactness, no tightness, no squandering, not a line that does not carry the tale forward. The characterization is brightly vivid. The figures that do but cross the stage are as strong in personality as the chief players—all of an absolute individuality, most of them, moreover, very humanly likable.

Aline of the Grand Woods. By Nevil G. Henshaw. New York: Outing Publishing Co.

This book is written with a gentle naïveté that would perhaps charm in a short story, but palls during the course of 491 pages that contain nothing either startling or impressive except the glossary's translation of *Comment ça va?* by "How are you going?" The old devices of melodrama are used to galvanize the stock characters into activity, even to the outbreak of yellow fever, without which no orthodox portrayal of Louisiana life is complete; and so careful of the type the author seems that we hardly need the publisher's thoughtful attention of describing the leading characters on the cover with Shavian comprehensiveness and yet a fine delicacy and restraint that is content thus to indicate the villain: "General trouble-maker. He has strong predilections for alcohol and wild life." The writer in his last sentence has very happily voiced the feelings of the reader who has persevered so far—"Come, let us go back to the woods, you and I." One is indeed left wondering why one should waste spring days on pages like these

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when the literature of the running brooks is to be obtained so easily.

The Web of the Golden Spider. By Frederick Orin Bartlett. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.

This book gives the reader a lively hour; from the time when the penniless hero and heroine take refuge together from the combined severity of the elements and the police, they lead the strenuous life without respite till they are left embracing on the last page, with their emotions, consistently enough, setting "the world about them in a mad riot." The story—a combination of Richard Harding Davis and Rider Haggard, somewhat inferior in style to the originals, dealing with revolution and treasure-seeking in a chimerical South American country—will probably find a welcome with readers of mercurial taste whose ultimatum in book-buying is the newness of the imprint.

The Cambridge History of English Literature. Edited by A. W. Ward and A. R. Waller. Vol. III: Renascence and Reformation. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.50 net.

The third volume of this work shows an even greater improvement on the second than the second showed on the first. The frequent repetitions and contradictions which disfigured the first volume especially have entirely disappeared and the general execution now promises to fulfil the very high expectations which were raised when the plan was first announced. The present volume begins with the English humanists, Linacre and Grocyn, in the closing years of the fifteenth century, and ends with Hooker's "Ecclesiastical Polity," the first books of which appeared in 1594. It does not include, however, the plays which fall within the limits of these dates, since the whole subject of the English drama, from its beginnings down to the closing of the theatres in 1642, is reserved for continuous treatment in the fourth and fifth volumes. The major part of the century which the volume thus covers is distinguished by the names of few great writers; but as a period of preparation for the Elizabethan age, and indeed for all modern English literature, even the earlier part of the sixteenth century has, of course, high importance, and is consequently by no means deficient in interest.

It is, moreover, an advantage of the coöperative method that each contributor brings to his particular task a freshness and energy which it would be difficult, to say the least, for a single author to preserve throughout. This is, of course, more noticeable in the treatment of those branches of literature which are least attractive in themselves—for example, in the present volume, the jest-books, pamphlets, and theological writings of the time, which receive scant attention in the ordinary histories of literature. Indeed, it is a remarkable proof of the virtue of style that no chapters in this volume are superior in interest to two which deal with subjects of a most unpromising kind—namely, Charles Whibley's on the Elizabethan Chroniclers and Antiquaries and J. Dover Wilson's on the Marprelate Controversy. The former is, perhaps, the best-written chapter in the whole volume. Admirable also, in point of style, as in other respects, is the chapter on the Reformation and Renascence in Scotland by P. Hume Brown, who has, however, the advantage of a great subject. Worthy of especial mention, still further, are the chapters on the "Mirror for Magistrates," by Prof. J. W. Cunliffe of Wisconsin, who summarizes clearly the intricate subject of the various editions of that work; on the Elizabethan Sonnet, by Sidney Lee; and on the Elizabethan Prose Fiction, by Prof. J. W. H. Atkins of Aberystwyth, who here, as in his earlier contributions to this work, exhibits a thorough familiarity with the critical literature of his subject. The whole volume, however, maintains a high level of excellence. With regard to W. J. Courthope's discussion of Spenser, one may remark that there is no use of beating about the bush as to why the "Faerie Queene" is harder reading than the "Orlando Furioso." Apart from his brilliant imagination Ariosto had gifts of humor, suppleness, and vivacity which enabled him to leave "our sage and serious Spenser" far behind in the matter of narrative interest. In his finest passages of description the English poet easily "overgoes," as he hoped he would, the Italian, but it is safe to say that no narrative poet of the very highest order would ever have chosen the Spenserian stanza as his metrical vehicle. As regards the facts of Spenser's life, Mr. Courthope does not seem acquainted with the recent discovery that in 1578 Spenser was in the service of Dr. Young, Bishop of Rochester, who had been the head of his college at Cambridge.

This volume, like the previous ones, contains a full and excellent bibliography. We note some *lacunæ* in the section devoted to Spenser—for example, the articles of J. B. Fletcher and J. R. MacArthur on the relations of the "Faerie Queene" to "Huon of Burdeux." Such publications as R. E. N. Dodge's edition of the "Poetical Works" (Cambridge Poets)—the best that has appeared—and L. E. Kastner's discussion in the *Modern Language Review* of Spenser's debt in his "Amoretti" to Desportes may have come out too late to be recorded in the bibliographical list.

Letters to Cassite Kings from the Temple Archives of Nippur. Edited by Hugo Radau. [Babylonian Expedition of the University of Pennsylvania. Series A. Cuneiform Texts, edited by H. V. Hilprecht, Vol. XVII, Part 1.] 4to, 154 pages, 68 plates, and 12 photographic reproductions. Philadelphia; University of Pennsylvania.

Dr. Radau's volume, which, although bearing the serial number XVII, is acually the ninth of the series, contains 103 letters—mostly fragmentary—of the Cassite period (about 1750 to 1210 B. C.), dealing with the business and other official affairs of the chief temple at Nippur. This collection forms a supplement to the two volumes, also on the business affairs of the Nippur temple during the Cassite period, which have been so admirably published by Professor Clay of the University of Pennsylvania. The copies are carefully executed, although Dr. Radau unnecessarily complicates the task of the student by frequent overshading and by the superfluous endeavor to reproduce every scribal peculiarity, instead of contenting himself, as do the editors of the British Museum series, with adopting as a basis the forms characteristic of each period. To these copies Dr. Radau has added a valuable concordance of proper names, including those of deities, places, rivers, gates, etc. In an elaborate introduction of over 150 pages he discusses such problems as the time of the letters and their general contents; he touches incidentally upon the chronological problems and furnishes also specimen translations with detailed comments.

Dr. Radau's style is discursive and there are numerous repetitions—one text being discussed in no less than three places—so that the whole introduction might with some care have been considerably compressed. Moreover, large portions might have been omitted without serious loss, such as the long notes about the supposed "trinitarianism" in the Babylonian religion, and the attempt to find an analogy between these letters and the official correspondence in the royal library unearthed by Layard and Rassam at Nineveh. Inasmuch as in another publication, "Bel, the Christ of Ancient Times" (1908), Dr. Radau has in detail set forth his various hypotheses regarding the theological speculations of the ancient Babylonian priests, it was hardly necessary to bring them forward again. It is, however, perhaps worth while to notice that, while in his monograph it is Bel-Marduk whom he regards as the precursor of the founder of Christianity, in the introduction of the work before us it is Ninib, the son of Enlil, who is thought to be the "Saviour" and the prototype of "Christ in the Christian Trinity." Needless to say that such speculations rest upon very insecure supports—

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doubtful interpretations of obscure passages in half-understood texts. Nor is he any happier in what he has to say about the "Lushtamar" tablet which played a prominent part in the recent "Nippur Controversy" (*requiescat in pace!*). The evidence is so overwhelming that the tablet was bought by Mr. Noorian (now of New York), together with sixteen others, on the date appearing on the label attached to it, that it is a waste of time to discuss the matter. Equally conclusive is the evidence that the tablet was written at Sippar, and that, being unopened, it never left the place in which it was written, but was kept there probably as a copy.

In the introduction, Dr. Radau also attempts to show that these letters form a parallel to those in the "Nineveh library." The letters found at Nineveh are concerned with the administration of the country, with the personal affairs of the kings, and in some cases also with religious affairs. They have nothing in common with the letters in Radau's volume which (properly characterized in the title as "from the Temple Archives") relate exclusively to the business affairs of a temple, and a particular temple at that. For this reason, alone, it is a priori improbable that they are addressed to Cassite kings, as Dr. Radau would have us believe. No less than thirty pages of the introduction are devoted to prove this thesis, and although not a single Cassite king is mentioned as the recipient, Dr. Radau expends much ingenuity in the endeavor to show that the title "bêli" (my lord), which appears in fifty of the letters, refers to the king. Since, however, the letters treat of temple affairs and not of political matters, the title is evidently that of a high temple official—probably the highest, the importance of whose post would justify the writers in using such a title. The usage is in accord with other evidence. Moreover, in one of the letters, a "king" is referred to, and in a manner clearly to distinguish him from the "bêli."

Altogether the introduction, though giving evidence of much study and showing the ingenuity and learning of the author, is marked by hazardous hypotheses that will not endure a critical test; and it would have been far better if Dr. Radau had confined himself to a summary of the actual data to be gleaned from these letters.

From Ruwenzori to the Congo: A Naturalist's journey across Africa. By A. F. R. Wollaston. Pp. xxv+315, illustrations, maps. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $5 net.

This is the entertaining account of a journey across Africa by a member of the British Museum expedition sent out in 1905 to make collections of the peculiarly rich fauna and flora of the Ruwenzori region. The book has not a scientific aim, however, but is simply a record of the impressions made by Africa's hot and hilly roads, winding waterways and cloud-girt mountain-sides. There are no thrilling adventures, and much is narrated that is trivial and uninteresting, yet there are many descriptions of scenes of enchanting beauty and graphic accounts of the natives and occasionally of the big game of the forests. The most interesting part is the account of the uncommonly successful work of the naturalists on the eastern slopes of the range. Of the fauna alone, they collected 6,000 specimens, of which 110 proved to be new species. Their success was apparently largely due to the natives:

> Hyraxes, gigantic rats, bats, mice, worms, beetles, chameleons, and snakes came pouring into Bihunga, when once it was found that there were people mad enough to pay for such follies. The care with which they secured the captive beasts, and the air of mystery and importance with which they produced them, were always a source of amusement.

An attempt to make collections on the western slopes in the Free State territory, completely failed from the hostility of the natives to their white rulers. The Belgian in command of the district compelled the party against their wishes to take an armed escort, and several instances are given of unprovoked and inexcusable maltreatment of the natives which sufficiently account for the conditions.

On reaching British territory, three of the expedition returned home by the Congo; and it is a striking illustration of the progress in Africa in recent years that a journey from ocean to ocean can now be made in less than eighty days. Mr. Wollaston's home route was through the almost unknown region lying directly to the South of Ruwenzori in which are the Mfumbiro volcanoes. The year before, an eruption had taken place which had continued at intervals for several months, causing frightful desolation; immense streams of lava covered the plains. At Lake Tanganyika, he turned west and on reaching navigable waters in the Congo Basin, made the remainder of the journey by canoe and steamboat to the mouth of the river. The impression left by the narrative of his experiences as far as Stanley Falls is of a country being impoverished through misgovernment. As an illustration, he says that the men building a railway from the river to the lake, through a region of extraordinary natural richness, are fed "on preserved beef from America and dried fish from Norway!" In the closing chapter, the author indicates briefly the character of the problems which the Belgians have to solve in ruling an immense population in the lowest stages of barbarism. That much good has already been accomplished must be recognized by all unprejudiced observers.

Several appendices contain among other things notes on the sleeping sickness and hints for African travellers. Two excellent maps enable the reader to follow Mr. Wollaston in his wanderings, and there are fifty-nine remarkably beautiful pictures, mostly of scenery.

The Characters of Theophrastus: An English translation accompanying a revised text, with introduction and notes by R. C. Jebb, 1870; a new edition, edited by J. E. Sandys. Pp. xvi +229. New York: The Macmillan Co.

This new edition, with Greek and English on opposite pages and notes below, is especially welcome both because the original edition is out of print and because Dr. Sandys has added valuable new material. His feeling of *pietas*, however, has perhaps caused him to follow Jebb too closely. For example, many scholars would feel that, in a book intended for adults, fidelity to the author demands that any expurgations should be indicated and the Greek printed either in the text (as is the case in No. xxi) or below. Jebb's original contention that the Greek text is only incidental is hardly in place in an elaborate edition like the present, which, from the reputation of both of its editors, is assured of a place in all libraries. References in the old edition should have been verified; *e. g.*, on p. 91, notes: "Lucian's *Symp*, c. 2, *Hermot*, c. 2," should be in each case *c.* 11. (Incidentally, a further reference to Lucian *Symp*, c. 38, would materially modify Jebb's statement.) There is a misprint on p. 62, note 6: for "brought back slaves" read "brought *black* slaves."

Dr. Sandys has added many references to works made accessible since 1870. Considering the close connection of Theophrastus and Menander, the fragments, old and new, of the latter might have been cited even more frequently, *e. g.*, on pp. 48 and 49, line 5, a reference to the new "Epitrepontes" seems called for, and on p. 43, notes col. 2, the account of "private arbitrators" might have been expanded (or modified) by a reference to the same play. Again, p. 113, note 18, on women "who answer the hall-door themselves" or who run out into the streets and act like shameless dogs, cf. Menander *Fragm*, 238 (Meineke):

> You're over-stepping, wife, a married woman's bounds,
> The front door passing; for to ladies of good birth
> The house-door is the limit by convention set.
> This chasing and this running out into the street
> Your billingsgate still snapping, Rhode, is for dogs!

The new indices are a great addition.

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The English index, however, might have been even fuller to include other names and matters of interest in the notes.

Although Jebb's name still stands alone upon the cover, Dr. Sandys has again, in addition to his previous contributions to classical scholarship, performed a real service in making accessible in such a worthy way an author who is one of the most valuable interpreters of Greek life and thought.

Science.

THE SOUTH POLAR RECORD.

Lieut. E. H. Shackleton's extraordinary success in approaching to within 111 miles of the South Pole, in spite of great hardships and suffering, will take a prominent place in the history of polar exploration. This, not only because he has been farthest south, but because he seems to have added substantially to the world's knowledge of the *terra incognita* in which he has spent so arduous a year. The journey across the ice of 1,708 miles, occupying 126 days, without any accident or fatality, is in itself a remarkable exploit. It was not a march over level, if broken, ice-fields such as Peary has repeatedly made in his dashes toward the North Pole, but it involved the ascent of a glacier forty miles wide and rising to an Alpine height of 10,500 feet. To the perils of polar exploration were thus added those of mountain-climbing. The rarefied air, combined with a temperature of 72 degrees of frost, made it almost a miracle that the party could progress at all. Yet with this cruel experience behind them, the men were compelled to turn back with an apparently unbroken and inviting plain stretching to the southward as far as they could see. The perfect health of the ship's company speaks volumes for the experience gained by Lieut. Shackleton, who suffered tortures from scurvy on his first Antarctic trip with Capt. Scott in the Discovery. Curiously enough, his vessel, the Nimrod, carried practically no vegetables, although these have heretofore been deemed necessary as an anti-scorbutic. Instead, the greatest care was taken in packing the meats in cans of triple thickness and doubly painted. Lieut. Shackleton stated before sailing that the food question had been "worked out to the final analysis," and the result has justified his confidence. Indeed, the extraordinarily rich outcome of the whole venture argues strongly not only for the courage of its leader, but for his foresight and the care with which the programme was elaborated in advance.

Part of the credit may also be ascribed to the Siberian ponies, which were useful both as a means of locomotion and as sustenance. To the general public, indeed, the experiment with the ponies and the motor-sledge is of particular interest. That the motor would be of slight value was to be foreseen. On flat ice-surfaces it was of use in establishing depots of provisions; elsewhere it had to be discarded. Four of the ponies died before the sledge expeditions were undertaken; the others seem to have done remarkably well, despite the necessity of carrying fodder. But, just as in so many previous cases where dependence has been placed on dogs, the explorers returned dragging heavy weights themselves. Man, somehow or other, outlasts his beasts of burden in the Arctic even when they are not used for food.

As to the scientific results, in which Lieut. Shackleton has from the first been more interested than in the mere recording of a farthest south, this intrepid explorer brings back a valuable geological collection, including limestone with traces of coal, and a complete meteorological record. Eight distinct mountain ranges and more than a hundred mountains were discovered, and many glaciers surveyed and photographed. In addition, the magnetic pole was located, Mount Erebus was ascended, the active crater measured and the old one explored, while important observations of microscopic life and atmospheric electricity will interest scientists for years to come. This is as it should be; a mere venturesome dash toward a pole has little or nothing to commend it. It makes excellent newspaper copy and reads well when described in a book, but has nothing of lasting value to compensate for the risks taken and the money expended. Of course, some time will be needed to "work up" the results of the Shackleton expedition. The construction of an accurate map, alone, must be done slowly and with infinite care. It is only by an elaborate comparison of new records with the old that it is possible to comprehend exactly the climatic conditions and the movements of sea currents.

The news from Lieut. Shackleton will quicken interest in the reports to come from Dr. Charcot, the French explorer, who started from Punta Arenas on December 17 last, with provisions for two years. Whereas Lieut. Shackleton left his vessel at Erebus Island, where Capt. Scott landed in 1902, Dr. Charcot's objective is Alexander Island, directly south of Terra del Fuego. He thus approaches the pole from another and less known side, with a considerably longer sledge-journey before him. This is Dr. Charcot's second voyage to the Antarctic, his first having occupied the years 1903-05, of which he spent the winter of 1904 on the ice. Indeed, Antarctic expeditions have followed thick and fast upon one another's heels since the opening of the twentieth century. There was a long period when the search for the South Pole enlisted few recruits. Under the leadership of Capt. James Cook human beings first crossed the Antarctic Circle on January 17, 1773. For the next twelve decades only three expeditions were set on foot. But in the last ten years Borchegrevink, Scott, Drygalski,, Nordenskjold, Bruce, and Charcot have carried forward the work, practically without cessation. There has not, however, been a uniform plan of action. H. R. Mill, author of the "Siege of the South Pole," urges with much force a "consultative international committee," which should raise funds, divide the field, and keep in service the vessels now in use, instead of securing a new ship with new equipment for each expedition. Several wintering parties could thus be maintained. "The price of one battleship would conquer all the secrets of the south," says Mr. Mill. There can be no doubt that it would add much to the sum of human knowledge.

Details of the new Krupp antidotes for airships and aeroplanes have now been published. Of course, airships are supposed to be the best defences against other airships, but next to them artillery is relied upon to bring a flying-machine crashing to earth before its occupants are near enough to any large body of troops to drop dynamite upon them. The problem before the Krupps was to devise mobile and immobile guns which can shoot straight up into the air, and which can be shifted readily from side to side for sighting. This they have done with remarkable skill. The gun devised for use in heavy automobiles or on trains is a marvellous improvement upon the old-fashioned mortar. It can be elevated to any extent desired, sighted by means of mirrors, and swung on an axis permitting a complete revolution, while the recoil is well cared for. Even more interesting is an adaptation of the present field gun of the German army, which can be raised on a spring, so as to be in the position of a mortar. The whole invention is so simple that the wonder is that it was not long ago brought out for high-angle firing ashore and afloat. Curiously enough, the anti-balloon gun carries with it a return to smoking powder. As an aid to the artillerist, it is intended to fire shells which shall leave a light trail of smoke as they ascend, so that their course may be clearly seen and the next shot directed thereby. On the other hand, his own shots, on their return to earth, may kill his own comrades or innocent bystanders. The return of the shell has caused an animated professional discussion as to the kind of projectile to be used, whether an exploding shell or a solid shot. Small projectiles, it is agreed, are all that are necessary, and shrapnel has been most effective against captive balloons. But beyond this the experts are at sea for lack of experiments. Balloons are too costly to be shot at, whether captive or free.

An abundance of new material on popular cures and superstitions in the medical creeds of the world is being made accessible in the new "Vergleichende Volksmedizin," of which the first *Lieferung* has just

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appeared, by O. von Hovorka and A. Kronfeld (Stuttgart: Strecker & Schröder). At least two dozen more parts, accompanied by more than 500 illustrations, will follow. The special character of the work is indicated by the sub-title, "Eine Darstellung volksmedizinischer Gebräuche, Anschauungen und Heilsfaktoren des Aberglaubens und der Zaubermedizin." Medicine, anthropology, ethnology, philology, are all enriched by this collection of details and data. As far as possible only first-class sources are employed, and the illustrations are particularly well selected.

A mass of scientific data regarding earthquakes in Italy, and especially regarding Messina, is intelligently presented in Dr. Albert Zacher's "Im Lande des Erdbebens" (Stuttgart: Julius Hoffmann). Dr. Zacher has made several tours through Italy on foot, a-wheel, and by automobile, since 1905, always giving his attention to volcanic and other disturbances. He now presents vivid accounts of the disasters in Calabria, 1905, the eruption of Vesuvius in 1906, and the recent earthquakes at Messina and Reggio.

Drama.

A new comedy, "Sham," by Geraldine Bonner and Elmer Harris, which was produced in Wallack's Theatre, the other evening, is brightly written in spots; has some point, if not much originality, as a social satire; is sound in moral and wholesome in atmosphere; but so weak and slovenly in construction that it assuredly would have collapsed if a less accomplished and vivacious actress than Miss Henrietta Crosman had been entrusted with the leading character, Katherine Van Riper. All the other personages and most of the incidents are conventional, but this young woman is vital. Reared in extravagant habits and overtaken by poverty, she continues to live luxuriously, largely by means of her wits and the ill-placed confidence of her tradesmen. Desperately in debt, her one hope of salvation lies in a rich, but loveless, marriage, which she has almost effected when she meets with a breezy Westerner, who captures her heart and opens her eyes to the essential dishonesty of the life she has been leading. Finally, after proving the sincerity of her conversion to a healthier state of mind, she deserts the false fashionable world for love in a cottage and true happiness. The tale, not being well told, would excite but little interest if it were not for the captivating picture drawn by Miss Crosman of the high-spirited, reckless, spendthrift girl. By her brilliant interpretation of the complex emotions of the third act, in which she had the stage largely to herself, she converted what threatened to be a failure into something like a triumph. Hovering constantly on the border line between laughter and tears, in which little touches of semi-humorous pathos were emphasized by occasional explosions of comic wrath, she kept the audience in high glee and dismissed them in a mood of smiling content. The embodiment was a notable bit of good comic acting—buoyant, spontaneous, varied, and natural—admirable alike in its ideal and the vigor and neatness of its technical finish. Miss Crosman is a veritable actress. Beside her the light of most other feminine stars shows very dimly.

E. H. Sothern is so industrious and conscientious an actor, and is possessed by so worthy an ambition, that each new step in his career compels a certain respectful interest. Moreover, he is the only comparatively young actor of any promise on this side of the Atlantic who is devoting himself to the literary, poetic, and romantic drama. But it is impossible to be very enthusiastic over his impersonation of Richelieu, which was seen for the first time here in Daly's Theatre on Monday evening. Modelled closely upon traditional lines, and fairly accurate in its recognition of familiar points, it was an absolutely uninspired performance, rarely rising above the level of mediocrity. Imitative and artificial, it exhibited understanding without power of execution. It lacked imagination, subtlety, intellect, and authority, and, although by no means lacking in vigor, but rather overabundant in sound and fury, failed to stir the pulses or create illusion. From a purely theatrical point of view it was not ineffective, but it was essentially tricky in its abrupt contrasts, its studied humor, and its all too conscious pathos. In utterance it was monotonous and dreary, the actor's declamation often assuming the character of a chant. The formal phrasing of the piece was a stumbling block, indeed, to all the actors with the exception of the De Mauprat of Frederick Lewis, and the general representation was sadly deficient in almost all the needful romantic attributes of graceful and spirited action, eloquent speech, and picturesque color. "Richelieu," with all its faults, is so good an acting play that even the poorest actors can scarcely fail in it completely, but its actual theatrical possibilities were but dimly suggested on the present occasion.

George Bernard Shaw has written for the London Afternoon Theatre what he describes as "a short dramatic sermon of an exclusively theological character."

The City Council of Vienna, which holds in trust all the literary remains of Grillparzer, has decided to issue a complete and thoroughly critical edition of his works, diaries, and letters. Prof. August Sauer of Prague has been selected to edit the twenty-five volumes, which will make up this set.

Johann Wiegand, one of the younger German dramatists, whose work is free from the repulsive features of much that is called "modern" in German letters, has been known to a small circle of New York playgoers by his one-act play, "The Last Trip"; his drama, "The Victor," in which Catherine of Russia is the central figure; and that powerful plea for universal peace, "The Wages of War," in which he collaborated with Wilhelm Scharrelmann. Wiegand's latest work, "Thalea Bronkema" (imported by G. E. Stechert & Co.), is a tragedy with a semi-historical background, the scene being Friesland at the time when the body of Henry IV was awaiting its burial. The book was enthusiastically received by Ernst Heilborn, former editor of the defunct Berlin *Nation*, and the initial performance of the play in Strassburg was decidedly successful.

Music.

THE NEW PHILHARMONIC ORCHESTRA.

The concert at Carnegie Hall on Saturday night marked the end of the last regular season of the Philharmonic Society as it has been known for sixty-seven years. When this society was formed, there were not many orchestral players in New York, and the demand for them was not keen. Their concerts were given on a coöperative basis, the profits—if any—being shared by the players. Since the death of Anton Seidl, under whose régime the receipts reached high-water mark, other factors have come into the reckoning. For several years the society imported famous European conductors, and finally engaged for three years Wassily Safonoff, who had attracted the largest audiences. He demanded, however, a salary six times as great as that paid to Theodore Thomas and Anton Seidl. The expense of the orchestra was further increased by the competition of the opera. As long as there was only one opera house, and the season short, it was possible for some of the players, and for Mr. Seidl, too, to serve both the Philharmonic and the Metropolitan. But when an orchestra was engaged for the Manhattan, and then the Metropolitan secured two orchestras, in order to play in two cities on the same evening, first-class players were tempted away from the Philharmonic. Their places were filled as well as possible, and good results have been achieved with the new material.

But many music-lovers have long desired that New York should have an association equal in proficiency to the Boston Symphony Orchestra, under one of the greatest European conductors; and the present crisis has seemed an opportune time to secure it. With the exception of the recitals of a few favorite singers and players, all concerts in this city have suffered grievously since the two opera houses began to bid for popular support, and apparently the venerable Philharmonic can be saved only by becoming a permanent organization of first-class players, giving such carefully rehearsed and finished concerts that even the opera would fail to lure patrons away. Such an orchestra costs money until it has been put on a paying basis—a single horn-player asked $5,000 for his services!—but, fortunately, the funds have been provided, and the New Philharmonic will be launched next autumn—a band of about one hundred carefully selected musicians, who will play under only one man. This man, Gustav Mahler, is one of the most inspiring orchestral leaders of our generation. Heretofore Americans have had hardly any opportunity to estimate his powers except as an operatic leader.

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His interpretations of Wagner have aroused warm enthusiasm, and his readings of Mozart, Beethoven, Weber, and Smetana are acknowledged on two continents to be the most finished on record. In Vienna, where he presided for ten years over the Imperial Opera, his activity as conductor of the Philharmonic concerts was quite as successful as his labors at the opera. He is also one of the leading composers of the time. The Philharmonic will for the first time have a conductor of whom this can be said.

Fortunately, it is not New York alone which will benefit by this new arrangement. The subscribers to the Philharmonic will have their regular groups of eight afternoon and eight evening concerts; but in addition to these there will be Sunday afternoon concerts, historic and Beethoven cycles, and virtuoso concerts. Brooklyn and other neighboring cities will be visited, and occasionally a longer flight will be attempted.

Mme. Nordica will sing with the Dresden Philharmonic Orchestra when it makes its American début at Carnegie Hall Saturday evening, April 10. The other soloists are Mme. Langendorff, mezzo-soprano; David Bispham, baritone; Albert Spalding, violinist; and Germaine Schnitzer, pianist.

Art.

A Short History of Engraving and Etchings. By A. M. Hind. Pp. 473; 111 illustrations. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. $5 net.

This useful handbook by a junior curator of the British Museum differs from its many predecessors in the abundance of its illustrations and extent of its encyclopædic features. Besides the usual technical introduction, there is a running history of the art, a list of engravers and etchers classified chronologically by nations and schools, and an alphabetical index of names, comprising dates, which includes more than twenty-five hundred entries. Bibliographical notes accompany the text, and there is as well a very full bibliography at the end. Naturally, a manual of this compass cannot give all the material information that the collector will need when he comes upon an unfamiliar print; but it will enable him to find promptly whatever has been written on the subject. Furthermore, Mr. Hind has contrived to write interestingly what is often perforce an enumeration of names and titles, so that the book will not fail to appeal to intelligent readers who are neither collectors nor professed students. Only prolonged use can test the accuracy of such a work. It endures very well the casual control of dates that your reviewer has been able to give.

For his caution in statement and impartiality of judgment Mr. Hind deserves all praise. Every writer of a manual is under temptation, the stronger, the more scholarly he is, to play the umpire on disputed points. It is so much more pleasant to settle them than to state frankly the difficulty. To this pernicious tendency Mr. Hind never yields. The reader is not robbed of the mystery that affects many of the greatest names of etching and engraving. Possibly, the space given to British artists is out of proportion to the general scale, but this, considering the public to which the manual is primarily addressed, was inevitable. Of insular prejudices Mr. Hind is refreshingly free. It is a pleasure to find the over-popular mezzotinters classed merely as capable artisans. A similar catholicity and fineness of judgment pervade the book. The author adores none of the ruling idols of the marketplace.

Here and there a critical reader will differ from Mr. Hind's rapidly sketched positions. Whether Goya is one of the greatest "virtuosi" of aquatint (p. 253) is fairly open to question. Many will feel with Hamerton that in this medium Goya suffers from a heavy-handedness which we never find in his painting. Such critics will dwell rather on the inventive than on the technical merits of the master. It seems to us also that Daubigny, as etcher, is treated too cavalierly. His too few fine plates surely stand above those of Jacque and beside those of Rousseau as normative in etched landscape. The American section and lists are inadequate. The late William Sartain was best known as a stipple engraver; Frank Duveneck had a "startling power of assimilation" (p. 332), not of Whistler's manner, but of Venetian subjects. As a matter of fact, Duveneck's vigorous plates, which were on one occasion very stupidly fathered upon Whistler, were completed before the famous Venetian Set of Whistler was begun. The merits of C. A. Platt's few prints—he has forsaken etching for a more rewarding art—should have given him a place in the historical text. In the lists might well have appeared the amateur, the late LeRoy Yale, George Senseney for his delicate work in color, and the names at least of Lewis, Sloan, White, Roth, and Washburne—young etchers who are productive and of much promise. These, of course, are trifling blemishes in a work that is readable, orderly, and packed with information. We have seen nothing quite so useful for the average person who is concerned with prints.

We can notice only in brief Ludwig Justi's elaborate study of Giorgione (Berlin: Julius Bard). It consists of two large and handsomely printed volumes—one of text, the other of documents and plates. The author differs from his many predecessors in entertaining a greater respect for traditional attributions, and in scrutinizing more closely the surface of the extant pictures. Opposite each cut in the second volume is a complete account of restorations and damage—an obvious convenience, though in the present state of our knowledge such observations are often merely subjective impressions. In general, Herr Justi takes the latitudinarian view of Herbert Cook, believing that Giorgione was a prolific and uneven artist. The Justi list of authentic pictures passes forty. He admits all works of the type of the Glasgow Adulteress and the Beaumont Nativity, here agreeing with Mr. Cook. On such a matter who shall dogmatically play the umpire? Yet as a suggestion it is so difficult to place the great dramatic pictures apart from Giorgione—they surpass the capacity of Cariani or Sebastiano del Piombo—that acceptance will seem to many the easier alternative. Herr Justi's theory that these works were begun by Giorgione, but mostly executed by Sebastiano, has much to commend it. Considerable additions are made to the already long list of Giorgionesque pictures. The most interesting of his finds is the original (or a copy?) of the picture from which Hollar engraved the self portrait of Giorgione in Armor. The canvas, in a ruined state, is now in the Brunswick Gallery. On the subject of the Pitti Concert, Herr Justi is a traditionalist. It seems to us that he hardly does justice to the reasoning of those who see in this masterpiece a highly Giorgionesque Titian. The actual painting is, in the central head at least, quite un-Giorgionesque. We should be inclined to seek a compromise by assuming an invention of Giorgione, finished—as we know the Dresden Venus was—by Titian. For a penetrating analysis of the æsthetic qualities of Giorgione Herr Justi deserves gratitude, even from those who, like the present writer, dissent from many of his conclusions. The collection of documents and plates is most useful, and more complete than anything that has previously appeared. Especially welcome are cuts of Zanetti's engravings after the crumbling frescoes of the Fondaca de' Tedeschi. Herr Justi has overlooked the Rubens sketch, represented only by a contemporary etching, of a sleeping Venus ascribed to Giorgione. The print is exhibited in the Antwerp Museum, and the reference to it may be found in Max Rooses's Rubens.

The first volume of "Aus dem Frankfurter Goethemuseum," edited by O. Heuer (Frankfurt-am-M.: Kunstverlag Hermann Knoekel), consists of a collection of fourteen sheets in imperial folio, containing ten portraits, three pictures, and two sketches by Goethe. It is the purpose of the publisher to reproduce the best things in the Goethe Museum.

The *Giornale d'Italia* prints a report by Dr. Duncan MacKenzie, read before the British School of Archæology at Rome, which gives the results of his latest explorations in Sardinia. He was accompanied by the director of the school, Dr. Thomas Ashby. Among the more important discoveries were several dolmens; one similar to that at Birori, hitherto regarded as the only well-preserved dolmen in Sardinia; another near the village of Austis, with a peculiar prolongation at the back, forming a transition

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between the true dolmen and the "tomb of the giants"; and two other more highly developed types, one covered with a slab measuring more than thirteen by seventeen feet, and the other partly cut in a cliff and partly built of stone, yet having the horizontal stone slab characteristic of the dolmen. New types of the "tomb of the giants," also, were found, shorter than the ordinary form, and having a curving front, built of several orders of stone blocks. In some cases, the cell was hollowed in a cliff and the characteristic great frontal stone and the front of the tomb itself were cut in the vertical face of the cliff.

The rearrangement and enlargement of the Vatican picture gallery has now been completed. For this purpose a corridor was chosen, formerly a carriage storehouse, on the ground floor of the west part of the Vatican, under the library. The galleries are lighted by windows opening on the Court of the Belvedere, so that only one wall is available for pictures—a convenience to the observer. The hanging is a uniform dark sage green stuff, of a slightly watered texture, excellent for the Primitives with their gold backgrounds and bright enamels, but rather too cold for the Raphaels and the later eclectics. The four halls contain respectively Primitive Tuscan painting, fifteenth century painting of Tuscany and the Marches, Primitive painting of Umbria and the Marches, and masterpieces of Perugino, Raphael, and the School. This adherence to logical association brings out the qualities of each group in a way that could scarcely be guessed from the old arrangement; and the collection has been much strengthened by adding to it the pictures hitherto half hidden in the Christian Museum of the Lateran as well as the Primitive panels, shown to great disadvantage under glass cases in the Vatican Library. The gallery is now one of the most attractive in Europe.

Among the exhibitions at the dealers' galleries in this city are paintings by Emil Carlsen, at Bauer-Folsom's, till April 10; old naval prints, K. O'Brien & Co.'s April 24.

News of the death of Prof. August Mau on March 6 has just been received here by friends of the scientist. Born at Kiel, Germany, in 1840, Dr. Mau spent most of his life in Italy, where, as member of the German Archæological Institute in Rome, he was able to carry on important work in connection with the restoration of Pompeii and other ancient cities. On the occasion of his sixtieth birthday, a number of his friends on this side of the Atlantic sent him a gift of several thousand dollars. Professor Mau used the money for defraying the expense of having copies made of paintings found on the walls of Pompeian ruins, and these copies were sent to American universities and other institutions. Among his best-known contributions to archæology are "Geschichte der decorativen Wandmalerei in Pompeii," "Pompeii in Leben und Kunst," "Führer durch Pompeii," and "Pompeianische Beiträge." He also compiled the catalogue of the German Archæological Institute; at the time of his death he was at work on the third volume.

From Munich, comes the report of the death, in his seventy-first year, of Dr. Alwin Schultz, at one time professor of the history of art in the University of Prague. He wrote largely on his subject, publishing among other books the following: "Höfisches Leben zur Zeit der Minnesänger," "Kunst und Kunstgeschichte," "Allgemeine Geschichte der bildenden Künste," "Häusliches Leben im Mittelalter bis in die zweite Hälfte des 18ten Jahrhunderts."

The death is announced of Prof. Alfred Messel, a distinguished architect of Berlin. He was born in Darmstadt in 1853, and studied his art under Strack at the Berliner Bauakademie. In 1883 he made the first of the trips to foreign countries which so strongly influenced him. Later he became a specialist in the style of the German early Renaissance and the Italian Renaissance. A volume has been printed describing thirty-six of his Berlin edifices.

Finance.

The Book of Wheat. By Peter Tracy Dondlinger. New York: Orange Judd Co. $2 net.

Mr. Dondlinger describes his book as "an economic history and practical manual of the wheat industry," and the scope of treatment warrants the comprehensive title. Nearly two-thirds of the work is occupied with practical questions such as the nature and chemistry of wheat cultivation; the different varieties of the grain in different countries, and their relative economy, from producer's and consumer's point of view; the cost of production, in this country and elsewhere; the manner and possibility of improvement through fertilization, irrigation, and crop rotation, and the diseases and insect pests to which the plant is exposed. These are by no means questions in which the farmer alone is interested. They concern the great financial and commercial markets vitally, as may be seen from the constant discussions, even on the Stock Exchange, of the progress and prospects of a crop. There are times when Wall Street will be more keenly concerned over rumors of "black rust in the Red River Valley" than over a demonstration by Servia against Austria. Such discussions are likely to be conducted with rather dense ignorance of the underlying principles. Like the cotton speculator who "went long" on news that the boll weevil had attacked the plantations, and then button-holed all his friends to ascertain whether the boll weevil was a disease or an animal, the grain market frequently judges of such matters at second hand. It would not be the worse off for the information which Mr. Dondlinger's book contains—information which is clearly and accurately put, and strikingly devoid of confusing technicalities.

The last third of the book treats of the production, marketing, and distribution of wheat crops the world over, and of the history of wheat harvests and wheat prices. It need not be said that these are topics full of interest, not only to men of affairs whose plans are affected by agricultural prosperity or adversity, but to students of economics. Few people who have not given special study to the subject are aware how essential a part these problems of harvests and prices have played, even in the great events of history. Taine has clearly shown the important influence of the agricultural blight in France of 1789, in precipitating the French Revolution in the particular form which it assumed. It was English and Irish crop failure which made free trade inevitable for Great Britain; Professor Thorold Rogers has hinted at crop failure in the British Islands as one influence which brought to a head the uprising of 1642. That a "bumper" wheat crop in the United States, along with European harvest failure, was an essential factor in achieving the success of specie resumption in 1879, was admitted even by John Sherman.

What part the similar conditions of 1897 had, in starting the ball of American prosperity rolling after the long depression, is within the memory of every one. It may indeed be said that the problems of agriculture are at the present moment among the foremost economic and financial considerations of the day. It was certainly this country's agricultural prosperity which averted the worst consequences of the panic of 1907, and saved our Wall Street promoters and manipulators from the full penalty which their excesses had invited. The election of 1908 was the first in our history in which the administration party won in the vote next succeeding a great financial crisis. Had the country's agricultural fortunes turned out in 1908 as they did in 1894 or 1881, it is possible that the result might have been different from what it was.

The thirty-three pages devoted by Mr. Dondlinger to the bibliography of wheat deserve special notice; for the inquiring reader; they provide access to a rich and extremely interesting branch of literature.

The deep cut in the price of steel structural material which has accompanied the "open market," called forth, last month, the largest volume of orders ever known in that branch of the trade. This is a perfectly logical result of the policy of low prices, adopted by the great steel corporations after a year of unnecessary and unwise delay. It is also conclusive refutation of the singular theory of economics set forth by Judge Gary last April, and his statement that the fact that the demand is less than the supply does not furnish an argument for lowering the price, and that neither through such lowering nor through an ad-

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vance in price when demand exceeds supply, "would the quantity bought and sold be more or less." The obvious fact, after the panic of 1907, in the steel trade as in other industries, was that capacity to consume was impaired, that credit was restricted, and that the usual buyers not only were able to postpone such orders as they may have planned, but were bound as a matter of common sense to do so, as long as concessions in price were refused. The whole history of modern trade goes to prove that, at junctures of the sort, the wise producer will find his market again by such immediate and radical revision of prices as will overcome doubt and hesitation on the part of the consumer. The dry goods trade, one of the few that is not dominated by a Trust, acted promptly on such lines a year ago; it took more time to teach the new industrial Trusts that they, too, were subject to the old laws. That they have apparently learned the lesson is a happy augury for both producer and consumer. It ought to be possible, now, for these great aggregations of capital to perform their normal economic function of preventing such extreme and prolonged fluctuation of prices, whether up or down, as would demoralize trade. That the United States Steel Corporation in great measure fulfilled this useful requirement, by preventing, in the boom of 1906, such extortionate prices as prevailed in the similar periods of 1882 and 1899, is admitted by every one. It should have used its influence a year ago in favor of a normal cut in prices, instead of foolishly obstructing reasonable readjustment.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allison, Young E. The Delicious Vice. Cleveland: Burrows Bros. Co.
Annals of the Astronomical Observatory of Harvard College. Vol. LXI, Part ii; Vol. LXVIII, Parts i and iii. Cambridge. Published by the Observatory.
Arnold, Matthew. Selected Poems. Henry Frowde.
Arreguine, Victor Tardes de Estio. Buenos Aires.
Bagwell, Richard. Ireland Under the Stuarts. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. $10.50.
Bailey, L. H. Cyclopedia of American Agriculture. Vol. IV. Macmillan Co. $5 net.
Barr, Amelia E. The Hands of Compulsion. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Barton, George. Adventures of the World's Greatest Detectives. Philadelphia: John C. Winston Co.
Berry, John B. N. Some Assurances of Immortality. R. F. Fenno & Co.
Beveridge, W. H. Unemployment: A Problem of Industry. Longmans, Green & Co.
Bowen, Edwin H. Questions at Issue in Our English Speech. Broadway Publishing Co. $1.
Butler, H. E. Post-Augustan Poetry: From Seneca to Juvenal. Henry Frowde.
Calvert, Albert F. Madrid. John Lane Co. $1.50 net.
Campbell, F. W. Groves. Apollonius of Tyana. Mitchell Kennerley. $1 net.
Carpenter, George Rice. Walt Whitman. Macmillan Co. 75 cents net.
Chambers, Robert W. Special Messenger. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Chapin, Robert Coit. The Standard of Living Among Workingmen's Families in New York City. Russell Sage Foundation. Charities Publication Committee. $2.
Cholmondeley, Mary. The Hand on the Latch. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Collier, Price. England and the English from an American Point of View. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.50 net.
Connolly, James. Socialism Made Easy. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr.
Craig, R. S. The Making of Carlyle. J. Lane Co. $4 net.
Dale, Alan. The Great Wet Way. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50 net.
Dante Alighieri. La Divina Commedia. Edited by C. H. Grandgent. Vol. I. Boston: D. C. Heath. $1.25.
Delany, Selden P. The Ideal of Christian Worship. Milwaukee: The Young Churchman Company. 40 cents net.
Dryden's Poetical Works, edited by G. R. Noyes. Cambridge edition. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. $3.00.
Forbes, S. A., and R. E. Richardson. The Fishes of Illinois. Urbana: Illinois State Laboratory of Natural History.
Fort, Charles. The Outcast Manufactures. B. W. Dodge & Co. $1.50.
Frazer, J. G. Psyche's Task. Macmillan. 80 cents net.
Galton, Francis. Memories of My Life. E. P. Dutton & Co. $3.50 net.
Griggs, Sutton E. The Race Question in a New Light. Nashville: Orion Pub. Co.
Hall, Charles Cuthbert. The Silver Cup. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. $1.25 net.
Haywood, Kate Harper. Torchbearers on the King's Highway. Milwaukee: The Young Churchman Company.
Hisperica Famina. Edited by Francis John Henry Jenkinson. Putnam.
Hugo, Victor. Works: Dramatic Works, 3 vols.; Poems, 2 vols.; History of a Crime, 2 vols.; Napoleon the Little. Boston: Little, Brown. $8 net.
Huneker, James. Egoists. A Book of Supermen. C. Scribner's Sons. $1.50 net.
Irish Texts Society: Two Irish Arthurian Romances. Edited and translated by R. A. Stewart Macalister. London: David Nutt.
James, Henry. Works. Vols. XV and XVI. The Lesson of the Master, etc. The Author of Beltraffio, etc. Scribner.
Johnson, Charles F. Shakespeare and His Critics. Houghton Mifflin Co. $1.50 net.
Kinder, Thomas S. A Rube's Twenty Years' Adventures. Chicago: Laird & Lee.
Kipling, Rudyard. Under the Deodars, The Phantom 'Rickshaw, Wee Willie Winkie. Doubleday, Page.
Knowlton, Frank H. Birds of the World: A Popular Account. Edited by Robert Ridgway. Henry Holt.
Mackail, J. W. The Springs of Helicon. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25 net.
Maeterlinck, Maurice. The Blue Bird. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.20 net.
Manual of American Literature. Stanton, Theodore (editor). Putnam.
Marks, Jeannette. Through Welsh Doorways. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. $1.10 net.
Marquand, Allan. Greek Architecture. Macmillan Co. $2.25 net.
Merwin, Bannister. The Girl and the Bill. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Meyers Grosses Konversations-Lexikon, Vol. XVIII. Lemcke & Buechner.
Mills, Enos A. Wild Life on the Rockies. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. $1.75 net.
Miller, Francis T., ed. The Journal of American History. The Associated Publishers of American Records. 75c.
Morse, Margaret. On the Road to Arden. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. $1 net.
Muir, John. Stickeen, the Story of a Dog. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. 60c. net.
North, Lawrence. Syrinx. Duffield & Co. $1.50.
Pennsylvania History Club: A Contribution to Pennsylvania Historical Bibliography. Vol. I. Philadelphia.
Pope's Rape of the Lock. Henry Frowde.
Ramsay, Sir William. Essays, Biographical and Chemical. E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.50 net.
Sannia, Enrico. Il Comico, l' Umorismo e la Satira nella Divina Commedia. 2 vols. Milan: Ulrico Hoepli.
Schevill, Ferdinand. Siena: The story of a Mediæval Commune. C. Scribner's Sons. $2.50 net.
Simon, Helene. William und Mary Wollstonecraft. München: C. H. Beck.
Smith, William Walter. Religious Education. Milwaukee: The Young Churchman Company. $2 net.
Sturge, M. Carta. The Truth and Error of Christian Science. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50 net.
Upward, Allen. The East End of Europe. E. P. Dutton & Co. $4 net.
Von Hutten, Bettina. Kingsmead. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Webb, Sidney and Beatrice. The Break-up of the Poor Law. The Minority Report of the Poor Law Commission. Parts I and II. Longmans, Green & Co.
Wenley, R. M. Modern Thought and the Crisis in Belief. Macmillan Co. $1.50 net.
White, Fred M. A Crime on Canvas. R. F. Fenno. $1.50.
Witmer, Lightner. Mental Healing and the Emmanuel Movement. Philadelphia: The Psychological Clinic Press. 25c.
Woodberry, George E. The Life of Edgar Allan Poe. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. 2 vols. $5 net.

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